CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature relevant to the subject matter of this present research. The literature survey is presented in ten sections with each section reviewing pertinent empirical studies conducted.

2.1 Importance of emotions at work
2.2 Research developments and impact of emotional intelligence at work
2.3 Research development on Job performance
2.4 Impact of emotional intelligence on job performance
2.5 Research developments in emotional labour
2.6 The various service typologies
2.7 Mediational Analysis: Emotional Labour as a Mediator
2.8 Outlines the focus of the present research
2.9 Enumerates the research questions to be addressed by this thesis.

2.1. IMPORTANCE OF EMOTIONS AT WORK

The biggest and the toughest challenge faced by the managers of today is managing employee’s emotions. More so in these days when the business is undergoing a tough phase and is leading to a situation where the organization will have to adopt strategies like downsizing, mergers and acquisitions leading to ethical scandals and technological insecurity (Barclay, Skarlicki & Pugh, 2005) and also in relation to customers interaction.

It has been more than three decades since the advent of emotion research in management parlance (Ashkanasy, Hartel & Daus, 2002). Emotions have been linked
to important work outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour, workplace deviance behaviour and task performance (Fisher, 2000; Fisher & Noble, 2004; Lee & Allen, 2002). In spite of researches being done in emotions over the years there are very few on concerns with emotion (Briner & Kiefer, 2005; Beal, Weiss, Barros & McDermid, 2005). Concerns are lack of consistent definitions of emotions (Briner & Kiefer, 2005); misalignment of theory and the measurement of emotion threaten the validity of such research (e.g., Robinson & Clore, 2002; Beal et al., 2005) and emotion scholarship is that discrete emotions need to be studied rather than overarching positive and negative dimensions (Briner & Kiefer, 2005) for the sake of simplicity.

There are many definitions of emotion, ranging from the lay version of feeling a particular way to mood states (George & Brief, 1992) to reactions to an event (Frijda, 1993; Lazarus, 1991) to physiological changes (Briner & Kiefer, 2005). Emotion is defined as an organized mental response to an event or entity (Izard, 1991; Ortony et al., 1988). The emotion response is characterized by physiological, experiential, motivational and cognitive components (Izard, 1991; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenios, 2001). Emotions are shorter and more intense than moods (Fisher, 2000; 2002). Emotions do not arise in response to certain events but carry certain important information about the event and it is this information which gets into our cognitive decision making processes (Gohm & Clore, 2002). It could be said that emotions are transient, intense reactions to an event, person or entity (Diener et al., 1995; Fisher, 2000; Ortony et al., 1988). Emotions arise when interactions takes place and are also identified as a social phenomenon (Fischer & Tangney, 1995). Since emotions arise in response to an event and are more intense than moods, they are significant prelude to action (Frijda, 1986). It would also be interesting to note that emotions could occur in every interaction and the intensity of those particular emotions can wear off over time.
and could result in a more diffused mood state (Izard, 1991). From these studies it is understood that emotions are short term, intense reactions to an event (e.g., Beal et al., 2005; Frijda, 1993; Fisher, 2000, 2002; Fisher & Noble, 2004; Izard, 1991; Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Mayer et al., 2001; Ortony et al., 1988; Weiss et al., 1999; Zelenski & Larsen, 2000). Emotions like anger, joy, pride, guilt are short lived, but are intense reactions to an event and impact work behaviours (Parkinson, 1995). Individual and group emotion plays an important role in individual and group functioning (e.g., Ashkanasy et al., 2002; Kelly & Barsade, 2001). It is very important to distinguish between emotion and other related constructs such as affect, mood and attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction). Regardless of how emotion is defined, it is short lived and influential in instigating action (Izard, 1991; Mayer et al., 2001; Zelenski & Larsen, 2000). Affect refers to longer lasting phenomenon characterized as positive or negative affect. These affect definitions include mood. Moods are longer in duration than emotions yet shorter in duration than affect (Frijda, 1993; Fisher, 2000). Moods activate in an individual’s cognitive background, have no specific target, are not as intense as emotions and persist for a longer duration (Briner & Kiefer, 2005; Fisher, 2000).

From the available studies it is understood inequity leads to anger, sadness and also sometimes need for revenge against certain unfair treatment (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Barclay et al., 2005; Lee & Allen, 2002). It is also stated that inequity has been related to greater incidence of counterproductive behaviours (Barclay et al., 2005). Emotions are known to be reactions of temporary nature because of an event whereas emotional intelligence is considered to be a more stable competence that could help individuals to use emotions in effective ways. The extant literature states that people with high emotional intelligence manage emotions effectively than people with low emotional intelligence (Ashkanasy et al., 2004; Brackett et al., 2004; Jordan et al.,
2.2. RESEARCH ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AT WORK

In the present day world, where technological advancement is at a very fast pace and intense global competition, it is necessary for organizations to elevate themselves from efficiency to adaptability. This has major implications on how business corporations are organized and managed. For the organizations have to even survive in the present day economy, it is required of them to be more inventive in all aspects of operations and management (Leavy, 2002). The present day managers need to possess the capability to anticipate and adapt to change in a very effective manner. Leadership is the prime area of focus and the most important aspect in an organization and leaders need to possess multiple competence. It has been identified through researches across 200 companies that emotional intelligence, particularly at the top level, is a very important element in leadership (Goleman, 1998). Not just for a leader but it is also important for a worker to be emotionally intelligent to succeed as an individual and the team as a whole (Yuvaraj.S and Nivedita Srivastava, 2007). Hence emotions in organizations is no longer the mystery it once was, conversely emotions and emotional intelligence in the workplace are gaining huge attention in management today. An organization is a place where individuals are organized to work. Any work requires the individuals to interact among themselves and share their emotions such as fear, anger and excitement and it is not possible most often to do away with emotions. Interactions should also enhance cooperation, and to illustrate enthusiasm in a sales person and the perseverance the bill collector exhibits and the empathy in social workers (e.g., Hochschild, 1983; Sutton, 1991).
Drawing upon EI’s theory, one could suggest that higher EI could lead to more task-focused coping (Ashkanasy et al., 2004; Brackett et al., 2004; Jordan et al., 2002; Zeidner et al., 2006). This proposition stems from EI’s theoretical position that it reflects the ability to engage in beneficial emotion management (Ashkanasy et al., 2004; Brackett et al., 2004; Jordan et al., 2002; Zeidner et al., 2006). In one study, higher EI was related to challenge appraisals rather than threat appraisals (Lyons & Schneider, 2005). High EI individuals cope with negative emotions better by buffering them with positive emotions (Tugade & Frederickson, 2004). The point of this discussion is that higher EI does not necessarily lead to the experience of positive emotions only. However, the relationship between individual emotions and their coping strategies could vary by the level of their EI (Ashkanasy et al., 2004; Brackett et al., 2004; Jordan et al., 2002; Zeidner et al., 2006). This is because higher EI individuals are better able to reason about emotional information than low EI individuals are (Ashkanasy et al., 2004; Brackett et al., 2004; Jordan et al., 2002; Zeidner et al., 2006). This position is supported by a recent finding that emotionally intelligent individuals tend to maintain a positive outlook even in the face of negative work events (Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2005). This positive outlook is reflected in responses such as seeking other opportunities or developing new skills. The low EI individual is not as adept at managing her/his negative emotion and is more likely to engage in dysfunctional coping (Ashkanasy et al., 2004; Brackett et al., 2004; Jordan et al., 2002; Zeidner et al., 2006).

### 2.2.1. Emotional intelligence and its history

Management of emotions of the self and of the others is emotional intelligence. E.L. Thorndikes’ (1920) seminal article, “Intelligence and its Uses” is often credited as the originator of core tenants of modern EI theory. It suggested three types of intelligence (i) abstract or scholastic intelligence i.e., ability to understand and manage
ideas, (ii) mechanical intelligence i.e., ability to understand and manipulate concrete objects and Social intelligence. Social intelligence as a concept was introduced by Thorndike (1920) as the science defined by the ability to understand and manage individuals.

From 1920 to 1980 there has not been much focus on exploring the idea of multiple intelligence. Then Gardner (1983) proposed a new multi model of intelligence with seven distinct constructs (i) linguistic-written comprehension, (ii) logical-mathematical, (iii) musical-awareness and discrimination of sound, (iv) kinaesthetic-process knowledge through bodily sensation, (v) visual-conceptual manipulation of objects, (vi) intrapersonal intelligence, and (vii) interpersonal intelligence. The “personal intelligence” comprised of intrapersonal intelligence which focuses on the “knowledge of the internal aspects of a person i.e., understand oneself and access one’s own feeling, desires and fears and to use such information to regulate one’s own life. The capacity to understand the desires and intention of other people and consequently work effectively with others is interpersonal intelligence. This will help “build on a core capacity to notice the distinctions among others; in particular, contrast in their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions” (Gardner, 1993).

Further the above definitions of Gardner (1983) for interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence legitimised the potential theoretical orientations of Thorndike’s (1920) concept of multiple intelligence which provided the grounding and content domain for most contemporary definitions. Sternberg (1985) developed a new concept called successful intelligence. It relates to those people, “who recognize these strengths and weaknesses and who capitalize on their strengths while at the same time compensating for or correcting their weaknesses”, Hedlund and Sternberg, (2000).
Three broad types of abilities that derive from successful intelligence are analytical, creative and practical (Sternberg 1985). Sternberg’s response to emotional intelligence is dual in value, helping to lay the theoretical groundwork for the eventful development of the EI construct and providing the possibility of sufficiently defining and measuring such concepts. After Sternberg (1985), Bar-On (1985) in his doctoral dissertation, ‘The Development of an Operational Concept of Psychological Wellbeing’, identified emotional quotient (EQ) construct. EQ is often used interchangeably with EI, and proposed that the social and emotional functioning could be measured with fifteen competencies that factor into the five key components (1) intrapersonal-comprising self regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence and self-actualization; (2) interpersonal-comprising empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationship; (3) stress management- comprising stress tolerance and impulse control; (4) adaptability-comprising reality testing, flexibility and problem solving; and (5) general mood-comprising optimism and happiness. The greater the number of effective EQ competencies, “the more positive the prediction for effective functioning in meeting environmental demands and pressures” (Bar-On, 2000). Bar-On (1985) was the first author to coin the term EQ and develop the measure of EQ, the ‘Emotional Quotient Inventory’ or EQ-I (Bar-On, 1997). The EQ construct have many similar aspects of the emotional competence model from Boyatzis and Goleman (2002) in the perspective of utilizing a competence model, measurement using self-report method and highlighting the factors that impact overall effective adaptation to environmental challenges.

Salovey and Mayer (1990; 2007) are frequently quoted as the originators of the modern emotional intelligence construct and they gave their first definition of EI as “the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information
to guide one’s thinking and actions”. Mayer and Salovey (1990) have presented a three-part model for EI. It is stated that emotional intelligence involves appraisal and expression of emotion, in the self and in others which is inclusive of being aware of verbally and non verbally expressed emotions. The second component involves regulation of emotions in the self and in others. The third component is utilizing emotions for providing flexibility in planning, creativity in thinking, motivation and the ability to redirect attention.

“Why It Can Matter More than IQ” by Goleman (1995) brought the concept into awareness and popularised it and it was also the best seller for Emotional Intelligence which has created huge research interest in the management field. Though this initial book attracted intense and justifiable critique within academic circles for its exorbitant claims due to lack of initial empirical support many were not convinced about the idea.

At this point it is critical to know that the concept of EI was popularised by two main streams of research and was the basis for a majority of current conceptions.

**Stream 1**: Emotional ability developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) defines EI as the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” and uses Mayer, Salovey and Caruso emotional intelligence test version 2.0 (MSCEIT, V2.0; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, 2002) to measure EI. Salovey Mayer (1990) specifically state that an individual’s ability to correctly identify emotions in himself and others, to distinguish between various emotions, and using this knowledge to appropriately respond to environmental challenges can be defined as EI.
Stream 2: Goleman’s-Emotional competency (1995;1998) an original construct, was built as an extension primarily on the earlier work of Boyatzis (1982) and Spencer and Spencer (1993) and focused on five areas of EI (1) Self Awareness; (2) Managing emotions; (3) motivating oneself; (4) recognizing emotions in others; and (5) handling relationships.

Based on the model presented earlier by Mayer and Salovey (1997) a more recent and widely adopted definition is “the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Mayer and Salovey (1997) focused on developing an actual ability or performance measure of EI and the original model was revised to include cognitive components previously neglected. Mayer and Salovey’s first measure, the Multi-Factor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS, 1999) consists of emotional perception, appraisal and expression of emotion; emotional facilitation of thinking; understanding, analyzing and employing emotional knowledge; and reflective regulation of emotions to further emotional and intellectual growth. In the process of developing a more reliable measure of EI Mayer, Salovey and Caruso developed Mayer, Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test V2.0 (2002). The measure of EI here is into branch scores perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions and emotional management. These are explained in detail later in this research. It has two area scores i.e., the Experiential and Strategic Emotional Intelligence and one final total score.

Bar-On’s (2000) five dimensional trait model of emotional intelligence is more akin to Goleman’s (1995) model than the ability model. This model includes behaviours associated with interpersonal, intrapersonal, adaptation, and stress

In the Indian context, very few measures have been developed. Chadha and Singh (2001) developed a test. As per the definition given by Chadda (2001), EI is the ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of stimuli being elicited from the inner self and the immediate environment. The research conducted in organizations did identify a few skills specific to the Indian business environment. The three dimensions of emotional intelligence identified were emotional competency, emotional maturity, and emotional sensitivity. Each dimension contains four skills which Indian managers should master to be star performers at the workplace. Managers for instance may have to learn the competencies needed for tackling emotional upsets, high self-esteem, and tactful response to emotional stimuli, and handling egoism. Emotional maturity is reflected in the behavioural pattern exhibited by the managers while dealing with the inner self and the immediate environment. Some of the important aspects of emotional maturity are self-awareness, developing others, delaying gratification, and adaptability and flexibility. In the psychological sense, sensitivity means the characteristic of being peculiarly sensitive and judging the threshold for various types of stimulations, evoking sensations, feelings, and emotions. The managers may seek to evolve the skills of understanding the threshold of emotional arousal, empathy, inter-personal relations, and communicability of emotions in their personality.

Goleman subsequently worked with Richard Boyatzis (2002) and developed the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI, 2002) that deleted motivation and focused on the four broad clusters: (1) self awareness; (2) self management; (3) social awareness;
and (4) relationship management with eighteen underlying competencies. With respect to Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (2000), EI is observed "when a person demonstrates the competencies that constitute self awareness, self management, social awareness and social skills at appropriate times and ways in sufficient frequency to be effective in the situation."

In contrast to Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002), Boyatzis and Goleman (2002) focus upon the outcomes of high EI, using observer rating and self-rating for the measurement of their emotional competency model. Self rating involves the participant rating his own abilities to measure his EI competencies; observer rating involves the use of a self report measure in a 360 degree feedback format, where the perception of individuals and of others acts as a guide to performance.

Employees with greater self-perceived emotional intelligence exhibit a greater tolerance to stress and environmental stressors (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002). Individuals with a self-perception of high emotional intelligence can better use their emotional regulation skills to their advantage. Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002) explain that employees high in emotional intelligence exhibit a greater tolerance for environmental stressors, are better able to identify emotions like frustration, and subsequently regulate such feelings to reduce stress and increase their entrepreneurial behaviour. In addition, individuals with greater self-perceived emotional intelligence tend to have greater affectivity (Zampetakis, Beldekos, & Moustakis, 2009). Greater affectivity permits entrepreneurial behaviours such as creativity and proactivity (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005).

Beaujean, Davidson, and Madge (2006) suggest that when people become conscious of their own inhibiting mindsets, they are more capable of learning additional
emotionally intelligent behaviours. Guidance from the role models that exemplify the desired mindset enables the self discovery process. Additionally, insights into these mindsets occur through feedback, reflection, and stories about the successes and failures of other social referents (Beaujean et al., 2006).

Rego, Sousa, Cunha, Correia and Saur (2007) considered six dimensions (understanding one’s emotions; self-control against criticism; self-encouragement; emotional self-control; empathy and emotional contagion; understanding of other people’s emotions). In spite of such diversity, four domains tend to be shared by most models (Kooker et al., 2007): self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social/relationship management. According to Akerjordet and Severinsson (2007), ‘regardless of the theoretical framework used, researchers agree that EI embraces emotional awareness in relation to self and others, professional efficiency and emotional management’.

After two decades of study and research, the science of emotional intelligence is still in its infancy stage. Researchers have not yet come to any consensus about how to conceptualize the construct of emotional intelligence (Grubb & McDaniel, 2007; Zeidner, Roberts, & Matthews, 2008). There has, in fact, been a great amount of diversity surrounding the beliefs associated with emotional intelligence. Three generally accepted models of emotional intelligence have emerged from researches, each with its own theoretical base and variation of measurement. These models are Goleman’s (1995) competency model, Bar-On’s (2000) trait or mixed model, and Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) ability model. At times, researchers have divided the models into only two categories, moving the competency model into the mixed model category (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000; Grubb & McDaniel, 2007; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2007).
Lindebaum (2009) has even suggested that high levels of EI might be counterproductive in some professions. He provides the example of the construction industry, where many of the “softer” human resource management initiatives have not been effective.

2.2.2. Importance of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is now considered to be important and imperative to an individual’s success at work and in other social contexts as general cognitive intelligence or technical skills (Goleman, 1998; Dulewicz and Higgs, 1999, 2000). Hedlund and Sternberg, 2000 defined emotional intelligence as “the ability to accomplish personally valued goals by adapting to the environment, shaping the environment, or selecting a new environment”. Researches by expert’s state emotional intelligence can lead to improving the general quality of work life to enhancing career success. As one of the best known supporters of the importance of emotional intelligence has stated, “Emotional intelligence gives you a competitive edge, having great intellectual abilities may make you a superb fiscal analyst or legal scholar, but a highly developed emotional intelligence will make you a candidate for CEO or a brilliant trial lawyer” (Goleman, 1997). Individuals with higher levels of EI will contribute substantially to higher performance outcomes and better inter group relations and these are prerequisite to organizational learning. EI is defined as an individual’s ability to accurately perceive reality so as to understand and regulate their own emotional responses as well as adapt and respond to others (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Pellitteri, 2002).
2.2.3. Impact of Emotional Intelligence on work and performance

The growth in the service industry and the changing nature of the workplace in the recent decades has enhanced the role of emotional intelligence in the workplace (Rafaeli, 1989; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). It is opined and various testimonials in the workplace state that emotional intelligence does affect individual performance. Anecdotal sources state that there has been general lack in systematic analysis. Although much work has gone into the development and application of emotional intelligence in people’s lives, there has been a general lack of independent, systematic analysis of the claim that emotional intelligence increases individual performance over and above the level expected from traditional notions of general intelligence. People’s understanding of that relationship is largely from anecdotal sources.

It is now generally accepted that organizations also have feelings (Albrow, 1994, 1997); that they are sites of ‘love, hatred, passion (Fineman1993); that the commercialisation of feeling (Hochschild, 1983) is a common occurrence and, emotion is a valuable resource readily available for development by management (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993, 12995; Ashkansay et.al., 2002; Dulewicz and Higgs, 1999; Goleman, 1998a; Morris and Feldman, 1996, 1997). Probably Hochschild was the first who studied the role of emotions in the workplace and effects of emotional labour in service industries (Hochschild, 1983). The growth and changes in the workplace of late in the service industry have enhanced the role of emotional intelligence in the workplace (Rafaeli, 1989; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). It is important that the front line service workers create a desirable emotional climate which could have a competitive advantage.

Due to the advancement in the technological front human interaction has reduced and also the importance of EI has reduced. On the other hand, the same
technological advances make the perception, understanding, assimilation and management of emotions in the self and others more critical for success; what is true of the workplace is true of the society at large. Emotional Intelligence is important to that extent it can help an individual be successful both in personal and professional life and hence it has grabbed the attention of everyone

It could be said that emotional intelligence has the potential to be a strong predictor of performance. The extant literature has cited emotional intelligence as a critical contributor to organizational success (Goleman, 1998; Salovey and Mayor, 1990; Weinberger, 2002). Organizational behaviourists have also attempted to identify the factors that influence the significance of EI and employees’ performance at work. The customer service personnel and the organization have to become more conscious of our “feeling-world”. It is required to learn to identify the “emotional baggage” and manage our “feeling world” reactions; the current is focussed than the past.

Emotional intelligence can be considered an individual difference that can enhance motivation to achieve and be a team player to form a socio analytical perspective (Hogan and Shelton, 1998). An empirical study by Priti Suman Mishra and A K Das Mohapatra (2010) stated and also contended that emotional intelligence will have both direct and indirect effects on employees performance and is also identified as a social skill concept. The same study also reveals that there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and work performance and this is in line with the findings of the previous researchers (Goleman, 1995). Goleman’s research shows that emotional well-being is the strongest predictor of success in life and also indicates that emotional intelligence is majorly responsible for a person’s success in life whereas IQ has a minor contribution to a person’s career success. This is because emotional intelligence enables one to control impulses and manage distressing moods well,
remain hopeful in times of setbacks and develops empathy and social skills. Hence, it is necessary to promote emotional intelligence in the workplace to foster harmony, productivity, innovative behaviour, and team building. This study also states that emotional intelligence increases as the work experience increases and this is in consonance with that of Abraham (2004), who expressed the view that emotional intelligence tends to increase as one matures and gains experience. Cote and Miners (2006), also state that administrative experience enhanced self awareness. This could be due to the employees interacting with people of diverse background and tastes in the course of their working career. Just possessing EI cannot lead to higher performance unless it affects how people use their emotions at work setting. Apparently, employees can handle their emotions accurately and use certain behaviours in the workplace that allow them to gather better information, grip others’ behaviour or make better decisions about their activities that result in better performance on the job (Kim, Cable, Kim and Wang, 2009).

The study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and performance is still in its initial stage and most of the studies are concerned with finding evidence to support the existence of relationships between measures of emotional intelligence and different aspects of performance. With specificity to the Indian context not much research has been done by using formal appraisal records to establish the relation between emotional intelligence and performance among executives.

Today organizations focus a lot on developing emotions. They also very strongly assume that the ability to regulate emotion is a positive trait and is also linked to positive workplace performance. However, as of now there is very little support to the above stated relationship. Emotional regulation means individuals self monitor the intensity and the direction of their own and others’ emotional responses, as Pellitteri
(2002) highlights, allowing them to moderate negative emotional reactions and remain positive. Regulations allow individuals to utilize their emotional knowledge to promote creativity and flexibility, social relations and maintain motivation. This suggests that emotionally intelligent people are more self aware regarding their strengths and limitations and because of this they are claimed to be more confident, optimistic, flexible, innovative and comfortable with new ideas (Bellack1999; Golemann, 1995, 1998; Mayer and Salovey, 1997). We must acknowledge that studies of EI are in their infancy with some questioning the veracity of the concept (Hunt, 2001) and its measure (Becker 2003). Nonetheless, positive links between EI and performance outcomes are emerging. Jordan et al (2002) reported lower EI levels contributed to reactions being more negative and lower coping strategies, and higher levels of EI was found to generate positive interpersonal relations with others (George 2000). Emotionally intelligent employees maintain self efficacy and reduce cognitive dissonance, thereby promote improved performance outcomes (Silver et al., 1995). Emotionally intelligent individuals prefer involvement because of their ability to relate well (Gardner and Stough, 2002; George 2000) and feel comfortable with an organizational philosophy that elevates and recognizes individuals and team contributions. Emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to accept exclusions or limited inclusion Schutte et al., (2001). Emotionally intelligent employees tend to want outcomes that benefit others as well as themselves.

A study investigating EI abilities, personality traits and work performance, found that EI abilities enhanced the effects of agreeableness on task and contextual performance indicating that individuals possessing a personality trait that predisposes them to get along with others, such as team player, are even more effective in task role as well as contextual role when they possess high EI abilities (Shaffer and Shaffer, 2005).
Another study by Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel and Hooper (2002b) found that the average EI team predicted team performance. High EI teams operated at high level of performance throughout the study period, whereas, low EI teams initially performed at low level, but matched the performance of the high EI teams by the end of the study period. The findings suggest that high EI teams appeared to have the necessary skills from the beginning to perform well against goal focus and process criteria and that low EI teams showed to lack these skills.

2.2.4. Emotional Intelligence Measurement Tools

Many tools have been developed and used to measure emotional intelligence. They vary depending upon the definition and theoretical perspective of emotional intelligence that is held by the researcher (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000b). Measurement tools based upon non-cognitive traits are typically in the form of self-report and 360 degree rater instruments. Two widely accepted tools are the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI-2) developed by Boyatzis and Goleman (Boyatzis et al., 2000) and Bar-On’s Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) (Cartwright & Pappas, 2008; Hedlund & Sternberg, 2000). The ECI-2 is a 360 degree measurement tool, where self, peer, superordinate, and subordinate ratings are used. This emotional intelligence measurement tool aligns with Goleman’s competency model (Boyatzis et al., 2000; Caruso, 2008). There is limited research on the predictive value or validity of the ECI-2 (McEnrue & Groves, 2006). Bar-On’s EQ-I is a self-measure tool which has been challenged due to concerns over what self-ratings actually reflect and the appropriateness of using such ratings to measure emotional intelligence (Wilhelm, 2005). Self-report measures rely on a person’s accurate self-perception. If a person has an accurate self perception, the measure may be accurate. The problem is that people are typically inaccurate when it comes to the perception of their own functioning or
ability (Mayer et al., 2000b). There has also been concern raised about the “faking aspect” of the self reporting measures. In a study conducted by Day and Carroll (2008) testing the fakability of the EQ-I and MSCEIT, results demonstrated that the EQ-I was susceptible to faking, whereas the MSCEIT was not. This research also supports the construct validity of the MSCEIT, which claims to measure ability as opposed to personality traits or behaviours (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Day & Carroll, 2008; Mayer et al., 2007; Rode et al., 2008). While the researchers who developed the MSCEIT recognize the value of self-report, they contend that self-reports do not measure intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). For this reason, it is important to measure a person’s actual ability and not the self concept of the ability (Caruso, 2008). This research study will utilize the MSCEIT for measuring strategic emotional intelligence.

2.2.5. Why MSCEIT (Mayer–Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test V2.0, 2002)

Instead of viewing emotional intelligence as a general construct the four dimensions of EI could be related to work effectiveness or job performance. At the first place the ability in the appraisal and expression of emotion has been identified by psychologists and sociologists to be very critical to an individual’s mental and even physical health (Butler, Egloff, Wilhelm, Smith, Erickson, & Gross, 2003; House, Umberson & Landis, 1988; Lin, Ye & Ensel, 1999). The accurate appraisal and expression of one’s emotions is necessary for people to develop better interpersonal relationships, to communicate with others about their requirements and in the process achieve their goals through better job performance (George, 2000). Secondly, the ability in the appraisal and recognition of emotion in others helps people to understand other’s emotions and to respond convincingly by exhibiting appropriate behaviours. This helps in gaining better acceptance and cooperation and this could be a very
important requisite for better performance in an organization especially when the work is of interdependent nature. The ability in regulating emotions permits an individual to alter one’s own emotions to decrease undesired emotions at work. These individuals could possess the capability to overcome negative emotional impacts (for example, an irate customer’s reaction) quickly and therefore their performance would suffer less from the adverse situation. Finally, an individual possessing the ability to use one’s emotions to improve performance will have a positive impact on one’s performance. Individuals with a high on such an ability can always direct and use their emotion to a positive outcome and in the process can help self and others remain motivated so that the job could be completed (Kenneth S. Law & Chi-Sum Wong & Guo-Hua Huang & Xiaoxuan Li, 2005)

The MSCEIT is designed to assess emotional intelligence on the basis of how well people perform tasks and solve emotional issues rather than simply asking them, for example, about the subjective assessment of their emotional skills. The MSCEIT is based directly on the MEIS-Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale. Responses to the MSCEIT represent actual abilities to solve emotional problems. Between 1995 and 1997, Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) ability model of emotional intelligence was recast, clarifying the abilities involved. The result was a Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence. Each branch score, in turn, is made up of two individual tasks.

i. **Perceiving Emotions:** The ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others, as well as in objects, art, music and other stimuli. In this there are two tasks, (i) Faces task and (ii) Picture task. Emotional perception involves paying attention to and accurately decoding emotional signals in facial expressions, tone of voice and artistic expressions. Researches suggest that the ability to perceive emotions within oneself accurately is related to the ability to assess them in others (Zuckerman, Lipets, Koivumaki, &
Rosenthal, 1975; Zuckerman, Hall, DeFrank, & Rosenthal, 1976). Therefore the faces and pictures tasks of the MSCEIT (2002) can be expected to serve as a proxy for one’s ability to accurately perceive one’s own emotions as well.

ii. **Facilitating Thought:** The ability to generate, use, feel emotion as necessary to communicate feeling or employ them in other cognitive processes. Here there are two tasks namely (i) Sensations Task (ii) Facilitation Task. This actually helps us identify how much a respondent’s thoughts and other cognitive activities are informed by his or her experience of emotions. Facilitating thought focuses on how emotions affect the cognitive system and, as such, can be harnessed for more effective problem-solving, reasoning, decision-making and creative endeavours. Emotions also change the way people think, creating positive thoughts when a person is happy and negative thoughts when a person is sad (e.g., Forgas, 1995; Mayer, Gaschke, Braverman, & Evans, 1992; Salovey & Birnbaum, 1989; Singer & Salovey, 1988).

iii. **Understanding emotions:** Emotions contain information and the ability to understand emotional information and think about how it plays an important role in our day to day life, how emotions combine and progress through relationship transitions and to appreciate such emotional meanings. For example, this ability answers questions such as: why are we feeling happy? How will my friend feel if I say that to him? This ability gives insight into ourselves and others and may require emotional knowledge and this knowledge helps us understand people better. Here there are two tasks namely,

*a. Blends:* connects situations with certain emotions (e.g., Knowing that a situation involving a loss might make someone feel sad).
b. Changes: measures the knowledge of experiencing possibly conflicting emotions in certain situations and understanding emotional “chains”, or how emotions make transition from one to another (e.g., how contentment can change into joy).

This branch includes the ability to label emotions- to recognize that there are groups of related emotional terms (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988). Understanding what leads to various emotions is a critical component of emotional intelligence. Knowledge of how emotions combine and change over time is important in one’s dealings with other people and in enhancing one’s self understanding.

Changes help us measure the ability to understand how emotions change over time. Blends can help us know how people can experience a combination of different emotions as there are simple and complex emotions.

iv. Managing Emotions: If emotions contain information then ignoring this information means that we can end up making a poor decision. The ability helps us to be open to feelings, learn from these feelings and to modulate them in oneself and others so as to promote personal understanding and growth. This information can be used to make decision and take appropriate action. This ability could be used to find the right balance in managing our emotions and be successful. The tasks involved here are

a. Emotion Management Task: rates the effectiveness of alternative actions in achieving a certain result in situation where a person has to regulate his own emotions

b. Emotional relations tasks: evaluate how effective different actions would be in achieving an outcome involving other people.
Managing emotions means that, at appropriate times one feels the feeling rather than repressing it and then uses it to make better decisions. It also means working with feelings in a judicious way rather than acting on them without thinking.

Emotions management tasks help to measure the ability to select effective emotional strategies as some are better than the other and emotional relationship task tests the ability to get certain emotional outcome is social situations

Perceiving emotions and facilitating thought are identified as Experiential Emotional Intelligence and these scores assess the respondent’s ability to perceive, respond and manipulate emotional information without necessarily understanding it. Whereas understanding emotions and managing emotions are identified as Strategic Emotional Intelligence and its score assesses a respondent’s ability to understand and manage emotions without necessarily perceiving feelings well and fully experiencing them. It indexes how accurately a respondent wants emotions to signify (e.g. that sadness typically signals a loss) and how emotions in oneself and others can be managed. For this particular study the researcher has considered only the Strategic Emotional Intelligence to identify the ability to understand and manage emotions.

From the elaborations on EI dimensions stated by Salovey, Kokkonen, Lopes and Mayer (2004) the two branches of strategic emotional intelligence were used to collect the data from respondents very specifically. Understanding emotions helps to identify the ability to understand relationship among various emotions, perceive the causes and consequences, understand complex feelings and understand transitions among emotions. Managing emotions helps us to identify the ability to be open to pleasant and unpleasant feelings, ability to monitor and reflect on emotions, ability to
engage or detach from an emotional state and ability to manage emotions in one self and others.

2.2.6. **Use of Strategic Emotional Intelligence (SEI) for the study**

Empirical research across organizations consistently state that business professional predominantly adapt to linear thinking style (e.g., Vance et al., 2006; Allinson et al., 2000; Buttner and Gryskiewicz, 1993; Kaish and Gilad, 1991). SEI branch of understanding emotions and regulating emotions is associated with linear thinking and it involves high level of conscious processing of emotions (as opposed to intuition) that requires “reasoning about emotions, how they develop overtime, how they may be managed and how to fit emotional management into social situations” (Mayer et al., 2002) and rational decision making processes. The linear thinking style by business professionals focuses more on rationalist tradition in which any system is composed of divisible parts that can be analysed, understood separately and added together to form a predictable whole system. Vance et al. (2006) found that frontline and senior managers adopted linear thinking style as compared to professional actors and entrepreneurs who demonstrate non linear thinking style. Linear thinking style focuses on logic, objective and verifiable evidence. Non linear thinkers pay attention to feeling and intuition and take decisions on gut feeling. (Kevin 2009). Feyerherm and Rice (2002) found that understanding emotions and managing emotions were positively correlated with some measures of team performance especially with regard to customer service dimensions suggesting the importance of EI in customer service environment (Abdul Kadir Othman, Hazman Shah Abdullah and Jasmine Ahmad 2008).

The organization chosen for this study and the level of the workforce chosen strictly falls in the level of linear thinkers i.e., frontline customer service personnel and managers and hence strategic emotional intelligence only was used for data collection.
Another very important reason for choosing SEI involves rational understanding and management of emotion where experiential emotional intelligence focuses more on basic level processing of emotion.

Having understood and identified the importance and impact of Emotional Intelligence we move on to study in detail the impact emotional intelligence has on performance.

2.3. STUDY ON JOB PERFORMANCE

Organizations, because of the prevailing intense competition to gain competitive advantage in the global economy today are doing various programmes. Organizations are trying out various interventions to increase the performance of the firm by affecting the behaviour of the employees on the job. Employee performance is thought to be a function of the employee's active construction of the situation through perceptual processes and experience. Both personal and environmental factors are to be considered. Performance research assumes adequate overall capability of the employee to satisfactorily perform the work task with appropriate job skill training. For existing employees, then, the accepted belief is "if you train them and give them a goal, they will perform." Organizations focus a lot on employee training and job redesigning to improve the job performance (Borman, 2004). It is also done so that the employees take on more responsibilities and contribute to the objectives of the organization (Lawler 1986). It is seen very often in organizations that the employees do more than what is stated in the job descriptions.

People are considered very important in business today as the whole business depends on their effective performance. Employee performance is an important area in the study of organizational behaviour. According to Bommer, Johnson, Rich,
Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (1995), job performance is the most widely studied criterion in organizational behaviour and human resource management literatures. Low levels of employee performance could lower firm’s profitability and lead to failure. The factor that explains organizational performance is job performance, which indicates how well an employee performs (Skinner, Dubinsky, and Donnelly 1984).

Employee behaviour is thought to be a function of capacity to perform and motivation to act (Hackman, Lawler, & Porter, 1977; Mitchell & Larson, 1987). Personal variables critical to performance capacity and intention to perform have been classified in terms of personality variables, attitudes toward work, level of cognitive function, and level of motivation. The above said variables are construed as intrinsic to the employee. Those individuals who achieve the goals are considered to be desirable employees. Goal setting is grounded in the motivational context of understanding employee performance (Locke, 1968; Bandura, 1977; Locke, 1978; Evans, 1986).

In a book concerning corporate reengineering, Hammer and Champy (2000) stated it is implied that existing employees will develop the skills required by the reengineered environment through a process of education focused on insight and understanding of job responsibilities, rather than solely on training task skills. Employees must not only be effectively trained to perform their tasks, but also educated in teamwork and quality techniques. The question of how to assess and develop the capability of employees to perform successfully in a high performance work environment is not yet adequately addressed.

Performance evaluation is done to maintain and better the performance of existing employees, and set clear and attainable goals (Locke & Latham, 1984). There are many studies which have been conducted in performance evaluation and the
studies have been devoted to the potential effects of some variables such as age, gender (Lee and Alvares, 1977), experience (Schmidt et al., 1986), observation time (Moser et al., 1999), interpersonal affect (Antonioni and Park, 2001), rating format (Yun et al., 2005), workplace deviant behaviours (Dunlop and Lee, 2004), and organizational politics (Witt et al., 2002; Miron et al., 2004) on job performance. All these studies indicate that job experience and education level had direct or indirect effects on job performance. Schmidt et al. (1986) concluded that job experience leads to the acquisition of skills, techniques, method, etc., that directly improve performance capabilities. It could be stated that for highly complex jobs, an increase in job experience results in higher job knowledge and task performance. The opposite may be true for not so complex jobs (e.g., Borman et al., 1995; Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo et al., 1997; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996). Performance has been conceptualized in terms of the execution and completion of well defined tasks (Bommer et al., 1995, Borman and Motowidlo, 1993).

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) identified and suggested two broad classes of employee behaviour i.e., task performance and contextual performance. Task and contextual performance contribute to organizational effectiveness in different ways (Kiker and Motowidlo, 1999). Task performance involves patterns of behaviours that are directly involved in producing goods or service or activities that provide indirect support for the organization’s core technical processes. Such criteria including quantity, and quality of output were widely used task performance criteria to measure employee job performance in the ergonomic studies. Contextual performance refers to interpersonal behaviours and is defined as individual efforts that are not directly related to their main task function but are important because they shape the organizational, social, and psychological context that serve as the critical catalyst for task activities and processes (Werner, 2000). When employees help others complete a task, be cooperative
with their supervisors, or suggest ways to improve organizational processes, they are engaging in contextual performance (Van Scotter et al., 2000).

Job performance is the most important dependent variable in industrial and organizational psychology. It is known traditionally that job performance has been conceptualized as the degree to which an individual executes one role with reference to certain specific standards set by organization (Nayar, 1994). Job performance is defined as the aggregated value to the organization of the discrete behavioural episode that an individual performs over a standard interval of time (Motowildo, Borman and Schmit, 1997). In this research job performance is used as another name for work effectiveness and is used to identify to what extent the employees have accomplished their assigned tasks.

The level of education required to perform a job for a worker has been a continuous problem in all industrialized countries. It is believed that the higher the level of education the more productive the employee will be in any organization. Posthuma’s (2000) did identify that education level is positively associated with supervisor evaluations of job performance. Education does not guarantee increased productivity. If the satisfaction is higher it could also lead to lower work effort, which reduces employee productivity. There is also this which the psychologists believe and are aware that education could impact job performance expectation, which leads employers to hire overeducated employees. There has been ample research which reveals the relationship between education, productivity, job satisfaction, and salary (Groeneveld and Hartog, 2004; Voon and Miller, 2005).

Deadrick and Gardner (2000) defined employee performance as the achieved work outcomes for each job function during a specified period of time. In very complex
organizations like construction industry it is often difficult to measure employee
performance because work outcomes are a result of multiple interdependent work
processes (Borman, 1991). Therefore, job performance can be seen as an individual’s
overall performance or as performance on specific dimensions, such as the quality and
quantity of work (Meyer et al. 1989).

In the job evaluation literature, working conditions imply two dimensions:
environmental conditions and hazards. Environmental conditions range from ordinary
to extreme conditions in terms of the factors such as heat, humidity, noise, smell, light,
and dust. Unpleasant environmental conditions have both direct and indirect effects on
employee job performance. The concentration on tasks of an employee who is exposed
to these impacts decreases, which leads to low employee performance including
productivity, quality, emotional stress, and in turn this causes high cost. Especially in
manufacturing concerns poor working conditions could decrease the concentration of
the employee on tasks which could impact employee performance such as low
productivity and poor quality. Shikdar and Sawaqed (2003) studied that companies
with higher environmental problems had more performance related problems such as
low productivity, high absenteeism. Hazards are unavoidable to name a few direct or
indirect exposures to light wound/scald, flammable danger, electrical hazards,
occupational disease, and mortal hazards. It is believed that ergonomic deficiencies are
the root causes of workplace health hazards, low level of safety (Shikdar and Sawaqed,
2003). Applying proper ergonomics in working conditions could enhance employee job
performance, good health, and job satisfaction Das and Shikdar, 1999; Resnik and
Zanotti, 1997; Shikdar and Sawaqed, 2003; Yeow and Sen, 2006).

Though there have been quite a few studies on age, gender, experience,
interpersonal affect in job performance, no research studies have been made on the
potential effects of job characteristics and working conditions on task and contextual performance. Job type, job level, and job context create different influences on job performance. Some jobs require high level skill and responsibility to perform tasks successfully.

During the last two decades other streams of research have emerged that move beyond task performance, like organization citizenship behaviours (Konovsky & Organ 1996) contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993), pro-social organizational behaviour (Brief & Motowildo, 1986) and extra role behaviour (Schroll, Cooper & McKenna, 1987).

Organizations to identify the performance of an individual conduct performance appraisals. Based on the type of business and industry it is conducted as a half yearly or annual exercise. Performance appraisal systems have evolved over the last six decades. Initially the focus was on the person, and then shifted focus to the job, and has a recent return to the person (Milovich & Boudreau, 1997). Performance appraisal methods earlier were simple and involved ranking and comparing individuals with other people (e.g., simple ranking methods). However, these early person-based measurement systems often exhibited a number of problems (Cardy and Dobbins, 1994). To handle these problems, researchers made a shift to job-related performance assessments. Here the requirement for accurate descriptions of jobs and an understanding of the performance appraisal process was important. Sophisticated models for understanding performance appraisal, some that elaborated upon the underlying cognitive process have been developed and tested over the past thirty years (Cardy and Dobbins (1994); and Murphy and Cleveland (1995)). Thus, performance measurement was modified from being person-oriented to being behaviour-oriented, with the emphasis being on those tasks or behaviours that were associated with a given job. Recently, both
practitioners and academics have realized that an emphasis on the job per se may lead to the omission of other important components of overall performance.

According to Milkovich and Boudreau (1997), "Organizations are replacing the notion of 'jobs' with considering what 'roles' or 'competencies' will be required for the 21st century". This trend has paved way once again to the interest in the person. Off late in particular, organizations have begun to develop appraisal systems based on competency models, which focus on the skills people need to be effective in their current and future jobs (Lawler, 1994). The most important observation is that though the emphasis is returning to the person (versus the job), competency models continue to be defined by the attributes of that specific job. For example, Mansfield (1996) defined a competency model as "a detailed, behaviourally specific description of the skills and traits that employees need to be effective in a job". Over the last decade, the extant literature has focussed on the importance of non job components of performance (Austin & Villanova, 1992). Bateman and Organ (1983) introduced the notion of organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), where the employee in addition to his actual job related duties performs quite a few voluntary actions that benefit employers but are not required. These authors and others have suggested that work performance is two-dimensional, composed of both work required by an organization and discretionary employee work behaviours (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). In further studying the two-dimensional model, Motowidlo and colleagues recognized the importance of non task performance, which they called contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). These authors suggested that contextual performance itself consists of multiple "subdimensions" such as teamwork, allegiance, and determination. Campbell and colleagues (Campbell, 1990; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993) also expanded these two-dimensional concept of work roles by presenting an eight-factor
model of work performance that includes job-specific and non job behaviours. Although multidimensional models of performance that include job and nonjob dimensions have been introduced, they lack a unifying theoretical framework (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Campbell, 1990; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). There is very little guidance to choose the right or do away with certain performance dimension i.e., job or non job, as there is no theoretical base. This has led to the practice of using customized performance measures which may not allow comparisons among jobs or across companies. Many researchers have noted that this lack of generalizability of the performance criterion hinders the validity of many predictors of performance (Austin & Villanova, 1992). The organizations to respond to the business requirements of today and to gain an competitive advantage have started offering programmes such as TQM, employee involvement, job enrichment, skill- based pay, autonomous work teams and gain sharing plans (Lawler, 1992; Lawler, Mohrman, & Ledford, 1992). This is also done to increase the organizations performance by affecting employee behaviour on the job. The intention is to take responsibility and actively contribute to the accomplishments of group based objectives (Lawler, 1986).

2.3.1. Service Performance

Researchers suggest that services can be classified based on the basis of service as being personnel or actual equipment (Hill, 1977; Thomas, 1978), or whether the target of service is a person or a matter (Hill, 1977; Lovelock, 1983), based on whether the nature of service is tangible or intangible (Shostack, 1977) and degree of customisation (Lovelock, 1983; Schmenner, 1986). There are also those who take degree of contact between customers and employees as a basis for explaining the different typologies of services (Chase, 1978).
The performance of service providers can be assessed by objective measures such as sales volume or revenue, profit margin, or the number of customers served in a certain period, just to name a few. Service performance can also be evaluated subjectively with, for example, service delivery skills and competence, or the extent of satisfaction felt by customers in service encounters. These subjective performance measurements can be done by customers, co-workers, supervisors, or employees themselves. As stated earlier it is known that, employees’ mood states have been found to be associated with some important organizational outcomes, such as service performance. Researches reveal that positive mood states enhance employee work performance, whereas negative mood states diminish work performance. For example, Pugh’s study on bank employees illustrates that employees’ positive moods can be passed on to customers, resulting in a positive evaluation of an employee’s service performance. Emotional labour stems from organizational emotion-display rules. In order to comply with these rules, employees often have to hide their inner feelings while showing affectations during interactions; and this kind of surface acting will give rise to emotional dissonance. It can be expected that, when the emotional dissonance is chronically accumulated, employees will suffer from performance deterioration. An empirical study by Adelmann (1995) supports the conclusion that emotional labour perception decreases employees’ service performance.

There is a gap prevalent in the literature with regard to the generic factors to measure job performance for which Welbourne, Johnson and Erez (1998) have taken the initiative to investigate the general factors underlying the job performance dimensions. In this research specifically the researcher has used Role Based Performance Scale developed by Welbourne, Johnson and Erez (1998), to identify job performance, and job performance is used as a proxy for the above stated scale. In Role-Based Performance Scale, role theory and identity theory are used to develop a
theory-based generalizable measure of performance. Role theory provides an explanation for why work performance should be multidimensional and identity theory suggests how to determine which dimensions to include in a model of work performance. By using these two theories it is suggested a measure of performance that includes five different roles i.e. job, career, innovator, team member and organization citizen. There has been ample evidence that roles have been recognized as central to understanding employee behaviour in organizations (Katz & Kahn, 1978) and according to role theory individual’s role expectations are influenced by both their personal attributes and the context in which they exist.

**Role Theory**

Through the extant literature it is known that roles play an important part in social structure (Mead, 1934; Turner, 1978), and roles have been recognized as central to understanding employee behaviour in organizations (Katz & Kahn, 1978). To be very specific, roles are positions within a social framework (Oeser & Harary, 1964); however, they also are defined by the individuals who occupy them (Callero, Howard, & Piliavin, 1987; Oeser & Harary, 1964).

Focussing and investing emotional energy into work roles contribute to organizational goals in a number of related ways (Kahn, 1990). Those who focus emotional energy into their roles enhance performance through the promotion of increased connection among co-workers in pursuit of organizational goals (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Investments of emotional energies also help individuals meet the emotional demands of their roles in a way that results in more complete and authentic performance (Kahn, 1990, 1992). Researchers of late have begun to recognize the importance of using roles as a way to conceptualize work performance (Ilgen & HoUenbeck, 1992; Jackson & Schuler, 1995). Ilgen and HoUenbeck suggested a model
based on work roles that makes a major contribution toward viewing work performance from this perspective.

According to role theory, individuals' role expectations are influenced by both their personal attributes and the context in which they exist. Hence role theory suggests that employee performance will be a function of both individual and the organization. This theory is a major advance in explaining performance as a combination of both psychological (individual contributions) as well as sociological (organizational framework) perspective. Earlier the focus was on individual predictors or environmental predictors and never assumed that both can contribute simultaneously.

Role theory’s most important contribution to performance management is that it provides direction for avoiding errors in measurement in the performance appraisal tools. In order to correct the measurement error role theory suggests that, performance management systems need to account for multiple roles at work. It has been suggested by researchers for using roles as the basis for job descriptions as well as for specifying organizational expectations and performance requirements (Ilgen & HoUenbeck, 1992; Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995). In spite of this recognition of the importance of roles and the fact that employees perform multiple roles in their organizations, research has continued to measure employee performance as if only one role job holder existed. On the other side it is also argued that role theory only suggests roles as a way to conceptualize multiple behaviours at work; it does not provide a definition about those dimensions of roles which should be included or excluded in a multidimensional measure of performance. Employees take on many roles at work. Identity theory may help us identify which roles should be measured in an instrument that focuses on behaviour at work.
Identity Theory

The theory that may help in understanding which roles should be measured in an instrument that focuses on behaviour at work is identity theory. According to identity theory, it is not the existence of roles, but their saliency, which affects behaviour (Burke, 1991; Thoits, 1992). Identity theory suggests a process by which people use an internal control system to filter information. The likelihood that an event or information that will trigger behaviour, is associated with the saliency of a particular role (Thoits, 1991; 1992). According to (Thoits, 1991; 1992), roles which are most salient to us provide us with the strongest meaning or purpose. In turn, the more meaning we derive from a role, the greater the behavioural guidance that ultimately leads us to exhibit behaviours associated with that role. Saliency of work-related roles in organization is influenced by rewarding behaviours, requiring behaviours, formal and informal recognition, and even punishment when appropriate behaviours are not enacted. Every organization has different expectation of their employees. Role saliency is different across organizations. It has been suggested that employees enact multiple roles beyond just “the job” and by employing identity theory it is suggested that roles that are considered important from the organizations perspective should be measured in a comprehensive assessment of employee performance. Hence it is through the compensation system that we get an idea of the important roles that have to be measured as these are the roles considered important for the firm’s success.

The roles included in the Role Based Performance Scale are the job and organization roles that are easily identifiable as dimensions of work performance. Over the last six decades job role has been heavily researched (Austin & Villanova, 1992), there have also been numerous studies recently which bring out the importance of organizational or non required work role (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Borman & Motowildo, 1993). Job role is clearly supported by compensation system (e.g. merit
pay, individual bonus plans). Welbourne and Cable (1995) applied identity theory to the study of group based incentives and conducted a research where they considered job holder role and organization member role and found that saliency of the job holder role was affected by the implementation of individually – based incentive systems like merit pay sales commission and the organization member role was influenced by the existence of group-based incentive plans like profit sharing, stock options. On the same logic in addition to job holder and organization member role, career, team member and innovator role were included. Career role, because, no longer can companies provide job security and promotion opportunities unless the employees attempt to increase their value by participating in training and acquiring new skills. It is now jointly the responsibility of the employer and the employee towards the employees career (Miner, 1986). This makes career role important to be considered in the performance model. The addition of the team member’s role is a very critical component in organizational performance. However, the recognition for the team member role has increased over last several years (Stevens & Campion, 1994). Organizations now rely heavily on team work and many performance models have included team work as vital component (Borman & Motowildo, 1997; Campbell, 1990). The final role included is role of a innovator where now organization members are required to perform innovators role which contribute to the effectiveness of the organization as a whole (Schein, 1970, 1980; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

2.4. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Over the last two decades emotional intelligence has become a subject where researchers are in a constant pursuit to check the relevance of emotional intelligence to the various aspects of human endeavour. Researchers (Bycio et al (1995); Bandura and Jourden, 1991) observed that job performance is the most extensively researched criterion variable in both organizational behaviour and human resource management.
literature. Though the theoretical justification and the empirical evidences are mixed regarding the influence of EI on performance, there are clear indications that EI does constitute a differentiating characteristic between success and failure for individual, teams and organization. EI has the potential to be a strong predictor of performance. EI is claimed to affect a wide array of work behaviours including employee commitment, teamwork, quality of service and customer loyalty. According to Cherniss (2000), two thirds of competencies linked to superior performance in the work place are emotional or social in nature. Most organizations have recognized EI as a set of emotional competencies that allow people to use emotions to facilitate desired outcomes (Fox and Spector, 2000). It is important to note as argued by Fisher and Ashkanasy (2000), the best rationale for the potential importance of EI is that "the study of emotions in the workplace has the potential to add to our understanding of behaviour in organizations and it is as diverse in outcomes as job satisfaction (Fisher, 2000), positive work attitudes (Carmali, 2003), leadership potential (Higgs and Aiken, 2003), self efficacy (Gundlach, Martinko and Douglas, 2003) and change management (Mayer and Caruso, 2002). Having identified these different behavioural outcomes it is clear that EI could play a very important role as a key career success factor for the present day employee. According to Cooper (1997) research attests that people with high level of EI, experience more career success, build strong personal relationship, lead more effectively, and enjoy better health than those with lower EI. The American Society of Training and Development has published a volume describing the guidelines for helping people in organizations cultivate EI competencies which distinguish outstanding performers from average. Linking EI with performance can provide organization with a valid alternative for selecting and assessing employees (Priti Suman Mishra and A K Das Mohapatra 2010).
As stated earlier, emotional intelligence is a strong predictor of performance, a critical contributor to organizational success, influences employees' performance at work and will have direct and indirect effects on employees' performance and is also identified as a social skill concept (Priti Suman Mishra and A K Das Mohapatra 2010). Individuals with higher levels of EI will contribute substantially to higher performance outcomes and better intergroup relations and these are prerequisite to organizational learning (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Pellitteri, 2002). This EI-performance link has been proposed in a few previous studies. For example, Lam and Kirby (2002), using a student sample, found that EI contributed to cognitive-based performance. Wong and Law (2002) studied the link in workplaces and found a positive relationship between EI and job performance.

**EI and Job role**


Task performance or in-role behaviour is critical in the evaluation of employees. It is well documented in organizational research that other employee behaviours contribute to overall organizational effectiveness (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Though the job role is clearly the most heavily researched over the last sixty years (Austin & Villanova, 1992), of late there has been ample work to identify the importance of organizational or nonrequired work roles (Bateman & Organ, 1983;
EI and Career Role

Career role was identified in addition to job and organizational member role as promotion systems reward individuals for career accomplishment (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 1994). Career has been defined as obtaining the necessary skills to progress through one’s organization (Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez, 1998). The authors have elaborated on the concept of career in relation to career commitment and career satisfaction. Career commitment refers to identification and involvement with one’s occupation (Meuller, Wallace, and Price, 1992) and career satisfaction refers to one’s feeling of satisfaction with one’s career as a whole (Lounsbury et al., 2003). Employees who are satisfied would exhibit commitment and also learn the required skills to progress in the organization, and also set career objectives Poon (2004). Nikolovon and Tsaousis (2002) find a positive correlation between EI and both commitment of the organization to the employee and of the employee to the organization. The study states that employees with high EI feel more valued at their positions which increases feelings of loyalty and commitment to the organizations (2002). Conversely Rozell et al., (2004) find no direct EI –AOC relationship, and Wong and Law (2002) find no significant relationship between EI and both AOC and turnover intention. It has been studied and identified that EI is positively related to career commitment (Aremu, 2005, Carson and Carson, 1998), Career progress
It has been identified that a new psychological contract has been developed between employers and employees and this is another reason why career roles need to be considered, as both share the responsibility for career planning (Miner, 1986). This leads to an effort where the employees attempt to increase their value to employers by taking responsibility for career planning, for a well developed career programme (Noe et al., 1994). Hence it is seen that employers can emphasize the importance of career roles either through compensation plans or by providing career development opportunities for employees. Emotionally intelligent employees would be more likely to enact appropriate emotional management strategies (Abraham, 1999).

**Team Member role**

The other work role identified is the team member role. Douglas, Frink and Ferris (2004) in their study suggest that emotional intelligence might influence teamwork. Offermann, Bailey, Vasilopoulos, Seal and Saas (2004) have demonstrated the impact of individual EI on team dynamics, interactions, performance and leadership. It has been proven by the studies that EI affects team or group performance. In the world of business where self-managed teams are now commonplace, the potential impact of individual EI toward team effectiveness cannot be overstated. Mayer and Caruso (2002) state that people with high EI will build real social fabric within organization, and between organizations and those they serve. Whereas those with low EI may tend to create problems for the organization through their individual behaviours. Individuals with higher levels of EI will contribute substantially to higher performance outcomes and better intergroup relations and these are prerequisite to organizational learning. Feyerherm and Rice (2002) found that understanding emotion (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000) and career development (Brown, George Curran and Smith, 2003, Stough and De Guara, 2003).
and managing emotion were positively correlated with some measures of team performance especially with regard to customer service dimensions suggesting the importance of EI in customer service environment.

Another study by Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel and Hooper (2002b) found that the average EI team predicted team performance, high EI teams operated at high level of performance throughout the study period, whereas, low EI teams initially performed at low level, but matched the performance of the high EI teams by the end of the study period. The findings suggest that high EI teams appeared to have the necessary skills from the beginning to perform well against goal focus and process criteria and that low EI teams showed to lack these skills. Jordon and Troth (2004) found that EI predicted successful problem solving of cognitive tasks in teams and the study’s findings were consistent with their earlier study (Jordon and Troth, 2002).

Number of factors affect team effectiveness even at its early stage of development. George (1990) studied ongoing emotional reactions of work team members that was found to affect the group. Teams “must be mindful of the emotions of its members, its own group emotions or moods, and the emotions of other groups and the individuals outside its boundaries” to develop effective team, Druskat and Wolff (2001). They argued that EI does not guarantee team performance but enables teams to establish norms for group maintenance behaviours, which involve building trust, group identity, and group efficacy. “Group emotion results from both the combinations of individual-level affective factors that groups possess as well as from group or contextual-level factors that define or shape the affective experience of the group” (Kelly and Barsade, 2001). A study on emotions and team processes by Peslak (2005) would be useful to help us understand the impact and evolution of emotions in teams. It was identified that team emotions at the beginning of the project were more
positive and negative; however, they increased in intensity over the project life with negative emotions growing more than positive emotions. It was also stated that the initial emotions did not significantly affect the overall team processes but the final emotions did. Many of the new performance models have included teamwork as a vital component (Borman & Motowildo, 1997; Campbell, 1990) and it is also identified that pay systems also encourage cooperation among team members and between teams (Wlebourne & Gomez-Mejia, 1995).

Innovator Role

To attend to the needs and concerns of today’s customers one need to possess a certain level of creativity and innovation. The rapid pace at which change is taking place in many industries has made job descriptions obsolete to a certain extent. Schein (1980) argued that if firms intend to survive in a complex and dynamic environment organizations must have employees who will be creative on behalf of the entire organization, not just creative in one’s job. It is not possible to carry on in a traditional way and they need to be innovative and perform an innovators role which will make one effective and contribute to the effectiveness of the whole organization (Schein, 1970; 1980; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Creativity has been defined as “the product of novel and useful ideas” (George and Zhou, 2002, Madjar, Oldham and Pratt, 2002). Innovative learning is obviously complex, involving a mix of rational, intuitive, emotional and social processes, according to Easterby-Smith, Crossan and Niccolini (2000). There are many studies which have proved that emotion plays an important role in employees readiness to be creative and innovative (Ambile, Barsade, Mueller and Staw, 2005, Fenwick, 2003, Fong, 2006, Fredrickson, 1998, 2001, and Park, 2005). Anecdotal evidence states that EI is related to innovation and creativity, it has been identified that people with high EI
end up with high innovator role as emotionally intelligent employees are able to identify, understand and manage and use positive and negative feelings effectively and provide innovative solutions (Stough and de Guara, 2003, Sulaiman, and Al-Shaikh, 2006).

**Organization role**

Of late researchers have identified the importance of organization role in employees work performance model (Borman and Motowildo, 1993, Brief and Motowildo, 1986, Campbell, 1990, Johnson, 2001, Mackenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne, 1998, Motowildo and Van Scotter, 1994, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997 and Rotundo and Sackett, 2002). Organization role has been defined as going above the call of duty in ones concern for the firm (Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez, 1998). This concept is a lead from Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) which represents a very old human conduct of voluntary action without expecting any formal rewards. Employees go beyond the employment contract and carry out non-obligatory tasks without expecting explicit rewards and recognition (Organ, 1988). OCB is often described as behaviours that go beyond that which is expected of an individual in a specific role (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). It has been demonstrated that positive emotion such as enthusiasm and pride are related to organizational citizenship behaviour where as negative emotions such as anger and anxiety is related to counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) (Spector and Fox, 2002). OCB is associated with empathy and employees who perform citizenship behaviours are considered "good soldiers" (Organ, 1988) for their effort contributed without formal exchange or reward in the employment contract. Studies reveal that women performed higher levels of OCB than men male counterparts (Lovell et al., 1999) and women are more concerned than men in helping others (Bridges, 1989). Dayan Caroll (2004) studied that EI was somewhat related to group-level citizenship behaviour and not related to individual-level
citizenship behaviour. The link between EI and OCB is more positive as the cognitive intelligence decreases (Cote and Miners, 2006). Employees with high EI abilities generate positive emotion and reduce negative one through emotion management to achieve high organization role and vice versa.

The above literature has given a detailed elaboration on job performance and the various roles an employee has to perform. This review has so far elaborated the impact emotional intelligence has on performance and various roles. It is now required to further study the literature on emotional labour and identify the role it plays towards performance.

2.5. RESEARCH ON EMOTIONAL LABOUR

Emotions are feelings that people experience, interpret, reflect on, express, and manage (Thoits, 1989; Mills and Kleinman, 1988). It is known that emotions arise through social interaction, and are influenced by social, cultural, interpersonal, and situational conditions. It is normal for most of us in our daily lives, where we often find ourselves suppressing feelings and displaying an emotion that would be more socially accepted and deemed to be more appropriate; for example showing excitement when a colleague gets promoted or suppressing anger when not being heard or considered. Regulating one’s emotions to comply with social norms then is referred to as “emotion work” (Hochschild, 1990).

In the last twenty years there has not been a single article which would not have referred to the “the Managed Heart” as a reference point. Hochschild (1979, 1983) gives deep insight into the social actor’s ability to work on emotion in order to present a socially desirable performance. It has helped us understand and identify that management of emotions entails a lot of hard work. As a worker becomes alienated
Hochschild (1983) states that emotion is not a periodic abdication to biology, but something which is subject to the acts of personal management according to implicit ‘feeling rules’ (Fineman, 1993). Hochchild (1979) points out, ‘work’ differs from the usual concept of controlling or supervising emotion: “Emotion work” refers more broadly to the act of evoking or shaping, as well as suppressing, feeling in oneself. Emotion work is a gesture in everyday social exchange to ensure social stability and well being of those involved. Just as gestures of emotion work can be exchanged in private, they can be exchanged in market place (Hochchild, 1979).

Hochschild states jobs that require emotional labour have three basic characteristics, (1) they require face to face or voice to voice contact, (2) they require the worker to produce an emotional state in another person, and (3) they allow the employer to exercise a degree of control over the emotional activities of employees (Hochschild, 1983).

The focus is often to identify the employees inability to match the feeling with the face and resultant emotional burn out, dissonance and low job satisfaction (Morris and Feldman, 1996; Rafaeli and Sutton, 1990). This could be attributed to a number factors like role ambiguity, role conflict, poorly defined control systems, constraining work arrangement and poor employee-job fit (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993, 1995; Mann, 1999; Morris and Feldman, 1996, 1997; Pitt et al., 1995; Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987; Weatherly and Tansik, 1992).

2.5.1. Emotional Labour – History

Hochschild (1983) termed the regulation of one’s emotions to comply with occupational or organizational norms as “emotional labor.” Hochschild (1983) defined
emotional labour as the ‘management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display for wage and therefore has exchange value”. When our job roles require us to display particular emotions and suppress others, we do our emotion management for a wage. As the flight attendants described in Hochschild’s study, to comply with the emotion requirement of the organizations, service providers need to practice to play roles, fake a smile or a laugh, and try to maintain a “happy” appearance (Hochschild, 1983; Karabanow, 1999). In other words, when interacting with the public under the guidance of organizations, service providers manage a publicly displayed emotion that is not necessarily privately felt. Managing emotions then become public acts when emotions are sold as products which need to be monitored by the company (Hochschild, 1983). As Albrecht and Zemke (1985) stated, “the service person must deliberately involve his or her feelings in the situation. He or she may not particularly feel like being cordial and becoming a one-minute friend to the next customer who approaches, but that is indeed what interactive work entails”. This management of feeling can be hard work given the effort, planning and control required for individuals “to regulate their emotions in the workplace to express something different from the emotions that are felt” (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Therefore, it is recognised that, for example, “the caring aspects of a nurse’s role can be hard and productive work in a similar way to physical and technical work” (Bolton, 2000b). This is also the case in relation to the emotional labour of the flight attendant, who, in order to ensure passenger contentment, has to manage her emotions so as to disguise any fatigue or irritation, to effortlessly present enjoyment in her work (Hochschild, 1983). The effort undertaken in the production of emotional labour allows the management of feeling in order to conform to, what Hochschild (1983) describes as, “feeling rules”. Feeling rules are, “rules or norms according to which feelings may be judged appropriate to accompanying events” (Hochschild, 1983). Feeling rules can be societal, occupational or organisational (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).
In a definition of emotional labour, Wharton (1993) as cited in Callahan & McCollum, (2002) remarks that not only such actions are performed for a wage; they are also under the control of others. It is required of the employees to engage in emotional labour to influence the emotions of others, for example the customers and co-workers, so that they achieve the intended goals, for example to sell a product or to make decisions. The emotional display rules are usually specified by the organization so that the emotions expressed are appropriate to that situation (Ekman, 1973). Emotional labour consists of certain display rules, depending upon how one feels may require use of emotion regulation strategies such as faking and unfelt emotion or suppressing an inappropriate felt emotion (Gross 1998).

Mumby and Putnam (1992) stated emotional labour as the way individuals change or manage emotions to make them appropriate or consistent with a specific situation, a role, or an anticipated behaviour in that organization. The focus here is expressing a wider range of emotions which is desirable for that work and to foster subjective well-being of the organizational members and their families.

On the basis of impression management Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) defined emotional labour as the act of displaying appropriate emotions, with the goal to engage in a form of impression management to foster social perceptions of her/himself as well as to foster an interpersonal climate (Gardner & Martinko, 1988). The focus of Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993 was to give emphasis to the actual behaviour rather than the presumed emotions underlying the behaviour (Hochschild 1983). Ashforth and Humphrey further stated that occupational and organisational norms are generally consistent with each other, and often conform to societal norms; for instance, the expectation that service industry workers will be polite. However, there are times when occupational or organisational display rules may not be in congruence. For example,
Mann (2007) highlights the existence of societal norms which provide expectations that doctors should show concern and empathy. However, there is an occupational norm between the members of the profession of the expectation to show detachment.

Fineman (1993) explicitly states that by offering an unfolding picture of some of the passions and perturbations of men and women at work, it can be seen how organizations are emotional arenas where emotions form, de-form and direct organizational processes, while a largely invisible world of anxieties fears and yearnings contribute toward the daily routine of work organizations (Fineman, 1993). Despite Fineman’s (1993) emphasis on organization’s different emotional zones, there is very little evidence of any conceptual clarity with terms such as ‘emotional labour’ being used to describe any event when an employee is in effect paid to smile, laugh, be polite or be caring (Fineman 1993). Fineman goes on to focus on the “emotions of control” and gives an analysis of the dynamics of control of emotions in organizations (Fineman and Sturdy, 1999; Sturdy and Fineman, 2001)

Morris and Feldman (1996) conceptualized emotional labour as the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions. This definition of emotional labour includes the organizational expectations for employees in their interactions with the customers, as well as the internal state of tension that occurs when a person displays emotions that are discrepant from her/his true feelings. They proposed that emotional labour consists of four dimensions: (a) frequency of interactions, (b) attentiveness (intensity of emotions, duration of interaction), (c) variety of emotions required and, (d) emotional dissonance. Emotional labour is identified as a characteristic of the job.
Taylor’s (1996, 1998) empirical study helps us identify how a tele-sales agent’s smile over a phone can be vital and create an atmosphere of customer intimacy, and their interaction with external customer shows an explicit example of performance of emotional labour for direct commercial purpose. Though not all situations in an organization can be so easily categorized. Taylor (1996) also states there TQM has clear implications for emotional labour demanded of workers concerned.

Callahan and McCollum (2002) interprets that the term emotional work is appropriate for situations in which individuals personally choose to manage their emotions for their own non compensated benefits. When an individual is not free to negotiate his own rate of ‘exchange’, when emotion management becomes another aspect of saleable labour power then feelings become ‘commotized’. The term emotional labour introduced by Hochschild in ‘Managed Heart’ is to describe emotion management with a ‘profit motive slipped under’ (Hochschild, 1983).

Hochschild’s (2003) also conceptualised emotional labour as that which involves impression management of service employees. These employees put effort to express emotions acceptable to customers. According to this perspective, the discrepancy between felt and expressed emotion is related to job stress and burnout.

Liu, Perwe, Hochwarder, & Kachmar, (2004) interpreted emotional labour as the attempt by an individual to reduce the discrepancy between felt and displayed emotions. From the perspective of the individual service employee, emotional labour involves individual differences as well as individuals’ (re)interpretations of his emotional experiences when examining the causes and consequences of emotional labour. Individual differences may predispose individuals to feel and perceive stimuli in certain ways. This conceptualization emphasizes individual differences as the
influencing factor on emotional labour. Though there are various definitions for emotional labour which focuses on varied outcomes, the basic theme is that individuals can regulate their emotional expressions at work. Hence it could be said that emotional labour is the process of regulating the expressions of emotions for achievement of organizational goals for which the employee is paid (Sushanta Kumar Mishra, 2006)

Display rules make it more likely that employee’s observable displays will comply with the rules (Diefendorff & Croyle, 2008; Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007); however, how employees regulate their emotions in response to these rules, and thus the quality of the display, is less clear.

Over many years management scholars always recommended Weber’s advice to keep emotions out of workplace to practice “administrative rationality” (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995). Emotions were only discussed to check how they interfered in interpersonal conflict and decision making. Over the last decade organizations have realized the importance and benefits that are derived from recognizing the value of emotions in the workplace. As strong emotions can have either positive or negative effects on performance, it is essential that leaders learn how to influence group members’ emotional reactions. For example, Jordan et al. (2006) identified negative moods reduced team performance even when controlling for cohesion, task conflict, and workload sharing.

Emotional labour had always been associated more as a duty of the front line service employees (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Ashkanasy and Daus, 2002; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Morris and Feldman, 1996; Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987). Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) also noted the frequency of performing emotional labour by managers was higher than that of physical labourers and matched that of
sales/service workers and human service workers. Brotheridge (2006b) listed emotional labour in managers as one of the areas that needs additional study, and that scholars should examine: “the effect of managers’ emotions on workers, or the impact of emotional expressiveness on managerial influence and leadership processes.”

The most common form of emotional labour is “service with a smile” encounters during which waiters and other service workers act friendly toward customers and clients (Pugh, 2001). Emotional labour is also performed in various settings like in health, where workers are expected to show sympathy or a variety of other emotions.

However, Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) and Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) suggested that rules should more accurately be called display rules because they referred to observable behaviours (emotional expressions) rather than to unobservable internal feelings. It is the observable emotional displays that have the maximum impact on customers. Nonetheless, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) stated that, in order to display the appropriate emotions, employees might have to regulate their internal emotional states. Hochschild (1979, 1983) described two ways in which employees alter their emotional expressions. When employees change their outward emotional expressions but do not attempt to feel the emotions that they are displaying, they are practicing surface acting. In contrast, when they attempt to actually feel the emotions they want to display, they are practicing deep acting. When an individual is being forced to comply with display rules it could lead to stressful and harmful psychological effects (Bono and Vey, 2005). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) also state that surface acting and deep acting may have harmful psychological effects, but it also depends on the degree to which the actor identifies with his or her role and occupation.
**Display Rules**

Hochschild (1983) stated that service providers and customers share a set of expectations about the nature of emotions that should be displayed during the service encounter. These expectations are normally a set of societal norms, occupational norms, and organizational norms (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1990). Ekman (1973) referred to such norms as display rules, which are shared expectations about which emotions ought to be expressed and which ought to be disguised (Ekman, 1973). Display rules have been presented as an alternative to feeling rules (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1990). Ashforth and Humphrey use the term display rules as opposed to feeling rules as their understanding of emotional labour “refers to the emotions that ought to be publicly expressed” as opposed to feeling rules which they argue refer “to what emotions are actually felt” (1993). They hold on to this position partly as a result of their research which can only consider publicly observable behaviour, and partly as a result of their belief that display rules can be conformed to without having to ‘manage’ feelings. Display rules are therefore the “behavioural expectations about which emotions ought to be expressed and which ought to be hidden” (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1990), which “provide standards for the appropriate expression of emotions on the job, emphasising the publicly observable side of emotions rather than the actual feelings of employees” (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) state there are three ways in which emotional labour can be produced: genuine emotional responses, deep acting, and surface acting. In relation to genuine emotional responses, they maintain that emotional labour requires effort even where feelings are in congruence with organisationally desired emotions, and that some effort is still required in order to ensure an appropriate emotional display. This is consistent with the interactionist model of emotion, which “emphasizes the social construction of emotion thus incorporating the notion that emotional expression is subject to contextual pressure” (Harris, 2002.). This is because,
even where there is congruence between organisationally desired displays and felt emotions, labour is still required as these displays are reactions to interaction (Harris, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996).

It is very common for the service industry and hospitality industry to implement display rules to regulate employees’ behaviour. Service personnel are expected to show an upbeat attitude at work and exhibit high energy and enthusiasm in every interaction with every guest and these are common instructions in employee handbooks. The organization by various ways keeps reinforcing these display rules, e.g., policies, stories, etc. These display rules are the basis for service providers to act friendly and remain upbeat and to disguise anger and disgust, even toward annoying customers. Employees must often give up their independence to the control of their company like regulating their mannerisms, body language, and emotional expressions (Paules, 1991). The purpose is to ensure that employees will project the desired image of the company to the public, and that this image will elicit the desired response, satisfaction and continued patronage, from consumers.

The earlier experimental researches state, surface acting is linked to lower authenticity and performance ratings, whereas deep acting has more positive effects (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, 2003; Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005; Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul, & Gremmler, 2006). These findings are consistent with early references to surface acting as faking in “bad faith” or deep acting as “faking in good faith” (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). So it is important to know, when do display rules make employees respond by faking emotions, or with deeper-level regulation? People differ in the value they place on positive displays with customers, or their valence for the display goals. Goal commitment, and the valence for meeting the goal, can be
enhanced by extrinsic rewards, such as financial incentives (e.g., tips; Wright, 1991) including the display goals (Diefendorff & Croyle, 2008). At the same time, expressing positive emotions to customers is likely to be a work behaviour that is intrinsically enjoyable to some employees, suggesting personal goals and higher valence due to intrinsic motivation.

2.5.2 Mechanisms of Emotion Regulation

It is understood that an individual may regulate his emotions at several points in the emotional process as per the emotion regulation theory. With reference to the work setting the job environment or a specific event may induce an emotion response in the employee (e.g., anger, sadness, anxiety), and behaviours may follow that would be inappropriate for the encounter (e.g., verbal attack, crying, complaining), because the display rules state that such reactions are not appropriate, emotional labour regulates his or her response. This regulation involves modifying feelings by "thinking good thoughts" or reappraising the event (deep acting), or modifying expression by faking or enhancing facial and bodily signs of emotion (surface acting). As studied by Hochschild (1983) regulating emotions results in burnout, job dissatisfaction, or "emotional estrangement". This could be understood by going through theories of emotions and stress (Lazarus, 1999). The experience of both emotions and stress are known to be accompanied by a physiological state of arousal involving the endocrine system (release of hormones) and the autonomic nervous system (increased heart rate, breathing, blood pressure, skin inductance). During this arousal state, the body converts its resources to energy to respond to the current crisis which brings about a shortage of energy for other tasks. It is known that over the past three decades or so, psychologists have found that emotions and the management of emotions are associated with health problems such as cancer and heart disease (Gross, 1989, 1998a; Pennebaker, 1990; Steptoe, 1993). Normally, individuals experience a physiological state of arousal or
emotion (anger or fear), and they then have an emotional tendency (attack or flee). This is in connection with Frijda's (1986) idea of "action readiness," and Freud's (1936/1961) idea that emotions provide cues about the environment. The arousal state from emotions informs them and gets them in a bodily state to respond to the situation. In today’s society, people learn to regulate that emotional tendency, so that their emotional reactions to other people do not result in "fight or flight" (Cannon, 1932). In response these "action tendencies" to respond to emotion-producing stimuli are overridden by coping or regulatory processes so that people do not act inappropriately in social settings (Lazarus, 1991). In order to show the appropriate emotion for a situation, sometimes individuals must inhibit or suppress feelings. Research on deception has found that people are able to inhibit expressions with only slight observable signs of the deception taking place (Ekman & Friesen, 1975). Inhibiting feelings and emotional expression lowers behavioural activity, but has actually been found to increase autonomic nervous system activity (Gross, 1998a; Pennebaker, 1985). Thus it is reasonable to predict that long-term inhibition would be associated with overall heightened physiological activity (Pennebaker, 1985). This physiological activity, or "bottling up" of emotions, taxes the body over time by overworking the cardiovascular and nervous systems and weakening the immune system. As evidence of this process, research has linked the inhibition of emotions to a variety of physical illness, including higher blood pressure and cancer (Gross, 1989; King & Emmons, 1990; Smith, 1992). In fact, inability to express negative emotion is one of the strongest predictors of cancer (Cox & McCay, 1982; Derogatis, Abeloff, & Melisaratos, 1979).
Service Acting

Hochschild’s (1983) emotional management perspective of emotional labour is based on the “acting” service providers perform. Based on Goffman’s (1959) dramaturgical perspective of social interactions, Hochschild (1983) states that service is a “show” where the service provider is an “actor,” the customer is the “audience,” and the work setting is the stage (Grandey, 2000). The work place (restaurant) provides the setting and context that allows actors (wait staff) to perform for audiences (diners). The interaction between actors and audiences is based on their mutual definition of the setting, which can be interpreted as occupational or organizational norms or display rules. Researchers proposed that employees perform emotional labour through three types of acting mechanism: surface acting, deep acting, and genuine acting (Hochschild, 1983; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Surface Acting

Surface acting involves employees simulating emotions that are not actually felt, by changing their outward appearances (i.e., facial expression, gestures, or voice tone) when exhibiting required emotions. In short surface acting is called “faking in bad faith” as it is not authentic and it is done just to retain the job and not to help the customer or the organization (Raforli & Sutton, 1987). For example, a hotel front desk employee may put on a smile and cheerfully greet a customer even if she or he is feeling down. In this case, the front desk clerk puts on an appearance that is not experienced. Using the surface acting technique, people alter the outward expression of emotion in the service of altering their inner feelings. By changing facial or bodily expressions, such as slumped shoulders, bowed head, or drooping mouth, inner feelings can be altered to a corresponding state (Hochschild, 1983). One flight attendant described how surface acting helps her to elicit friendly behaviour. “If I pretend I’m feeling really up, sometimes I actually cheer up and feel friendly. The passenger
responds to me as though I were friendly and then more of me responds back” (Hochschild, 1990). The flight attendant uses surface acting to display an emotion—friendliness—that she does not actually feel. Surface acting then is a discrepancy between felt and displayed emotion (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). It is also to be noted that surface acting was significantly associated with higher levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and the requirement to hide and control one’s emotions. It was negatively associated with personal accomplishments, role accomplishments, role identification and years of service.

**Deep Acting**

Another acting technique is deep acting. Deep acting occurs when employees’ feelings do not fit the situation; they then use their training or past experience to work up appropriate emotions. In short deep acting has been called “faking in good faith” as authenticity is seen. Unlike surface acting, deep acting involves changing inner feelings by altering something more than outward appearance. In surface acting, feelings are changed from the “outside in,” whereas feelings are changed from the “inside out” in deep acting (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild (1983) classified deep acting as (1) exhorting feeling, whereby one actively attempts to evoke or suppress an emotion, and (2) trained imagination, whereby one actively invokes thoughts, images, and memories to induce the associated emotion (thinking of something good to feel happy or thinking of something sad to feel sad). In other words, employees use their training or past experiences to help to bring out appropriate emotions or responses (empathy, cheerfulness) for a given scene (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a). By practicing deep acting, emotions are actively induced, suppressed, or shaped. The airline company that Hochschild studied utilizes the deep acting technique to help flight attendants produce appropriate emotions or suppress inappropriate emotional responses toward guests. In a training session, flight attendants are taught to imagine the cabin as a living room and
passengers as their guests, and to regard difficult passengers as children who need attention (Hochschild, 1983). For example, one flight attendant described how she uses the deep acting technique to control her anger when dealing with an annoying customer. She said: “I try to remember that if he’s drinking too much, he’s probably scared of flying. I think to myself, ‘He’s like a little child.’ Really that’s what he is, and when I see him that way, I don’t get mad that he’s yelling at me. He’s like a child yelling at me then”. (Hochschild, 1983). In this case, the flight attendant uses deep acting to change her feelings by deliberately visualizing a substantial portion of reality in a different way. On the other hand deep acting was associated with emotional work requirement scale, a sense of personal accomplishments and identification with ones role.

Genuine Acting

As Hochschild’s (1983) acting paradigm is on the assumption that service providers are making efforts to actually feel the emotions they are displaying, many scholars claim that Hochschild (1983) ignores the instances whereby one spontaneously and genuinely experiences and expresses the expected emotion without exerting any effort (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). For example, a bartender may show genuine caring when trying to comfort a depressed customer. Or a nurse who feels sympathy at the sight of an injured child has no need to “act.” Therefore, genuine acting is used to imply the situation where employees spontaneously experience and express same emotion (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Emotions are displayed with very little effortful prompting. However, Kruml and Geddes (2000a) argued that these assertions about Hochschild’s (1983) acting classification are incorrect because she described the genuinely expressed emotions of service employees as passive deep acting or genuine acting (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a). As the competition becomes more intense in the hospitality industry, many hospitality companies challenge their employees to strive for
“world class service.” This striving for guest-service excellence makes companies no longer content with their employees engaging in surface acting; they are seeking to achieve genuine acting or deep acting in employees. Let us consider the following instructions drawn from an employee handbook on how to greet or say good-bye to customers. Companies explicitly specify that “a personal greeting with a big smile and a warm ‘Hello’ means much more to a guest than a robotic greeting” or “Sincere thanks and your sincere (not ‘canned’) wish that you get the opportunity to see and serve the guest again.” Clearly, by encouraging employees to engage in genuine acting or deep acting, companies hope to enhance the authenticity of the service performance and reduce the possibility that service providers might break the service “norms” and express emotions incongruous with the role they are expected to play (Paules, 1991).

According to recent emotion regulation lab studies, both surface and deep acting techniques may result in the required emotional expression, but the physiological emotional response may still be active. Such studies may help explain how emotional labour can relate functionally to performance measures but can be dysfunctional for the individual’s health and stress.

It should be noted that EL does not always involve or lead to emotional dissonance (Zerbe, 2000). In fact both Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) and Morris and Feldman (1997) recognize that workers may genuinely feel the emotions displayed. In such situations EL has to do more with managing the appropriate emotions rather than faking (i.e., expressing unfelt emotions), hence in this scale emotional dissonance was considered as a component. It could also be associated with either surface or deep acting and these are components of the scale.
Only a few studies have investigated how emotional labour strategies might influence service delivery outcomes. Henning-Thurau, Groth, Paul and Gremler (2006) in a study of emotional contagion process found the significant impact of employees emotional authenticity on customers emotion in a service encounter. Grandey (2003) focussed on the concept of “affective delivery” which was defined as service delivery perceived as friendly and warm by customers as an outcome of emotional labour and found a positive relationship with deep acting and a negative relationship with surface acting.

2.5.3 Dimensions in Emotional Labour scale

To present the appropriate emotional display in organizational settings the focus is on the level of planning, control and skill. The four dimensions of the emotional labour construct is discussed here under.

**Frequency** of emotional display: This identifies the frequency of the interaction between the service provider and the customer. The belief is that the customers are more likely to do business when the affective bonds of liking, trust and respect have been established through employee behaviour (Wharton and Erickson, 1993). The more the role demands appropriate emotional display the more will be the regulated display of emotion.

**Attentiveness** to required display rule by the job is the second dimension. The more the attentiveness to display the required rule, the more psychological energy and physical effort will be required. Attentiveness consists of duration of emotional display and intensity of emotional display. Sutton and Rafaeli’s (1988) and Rafaeli’s (1989a) state that short interactions with customers often involve highly scripted interaction formats for e.g., thankyou and a slight smile, and the effort for this emotional display is quite
minimal. Conversely emotional displays of longer duration would require more effort i.e., more emotional labour. The study of Cordes and Dougherty (1983) identified that longer interaction with clients leads to higher levels of burnout. When the display is longer it is less scripted and hence more concentration and more emotional stamina required (Hochschild, 1983) and when the interaction with the customer is longer it makes it harder for the employee to avoid showing personal feelings and hence violation of norms takes place (Smith 1992). How strong an emotion is expressed states the intensity of emotion. Frijda, Ortany, Sonnemans and Clore (1992) stated that it is the intensity of the expressed emotion that determines whether customers shift their behaviour during service encounter, as customers could be convinced or irritated by the perceived intensity of the service providers emotion. With reference to the study of Hochschild employees perform emotional labour in two ways, surface acting involves simulating emotions that are not felt and deep acting which involves attempts to actually experience the emotions one is required to display. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) stated that deep acting requires greater effort because the role occupant has to invoke thoughts and memories to induce associated emotions. It is thus identified that role requiring display of intense emotions requires deep acting and thus greater effort from the individual.

**Variety** of emotions required to be expressed is the third dimension. The greater the variety of emotions to be displayed the greater the emotional labour of the role occupant. When it is required of the service provider to alter the kinds of emotions expressed to various situations the service provider has to engage in more active planning and conscious monitoring of their behaviour; hence greater will be the psychological energy expended. Wharton & Ericksen, 1993 stated that emotional displays are positive, neutral or negative in nature. The intention of positive emotional display is to increase bond, neutrality is used to convey dispassionate authority and
status and negative display is used to exhibit anger or to intimidate. Hence every transaction or service encounter uses different display techniques (Sutton, 1991) for example, a professor requires frequent shifts of emotion: positive display to encourage, neutrality to exhibit professionalism and negative display for discipline. The frequent changes in variety of emotions over limited period demands more planning and adjustment for example how a debt collector expresses cajoling, sympathy, and anger towards customers who have exceeded the overdue days and all the above emotions may have to be expressed the same day.

In a study J.Andrew Morris and Daniel C. Feldman (1997) state “the relationship among frequency of emotional display, attentiveness to the required display rules, variety of emotions to be displayed and emotional dissonance. Frequency of emotional display and attentiveness to required display should be negatively related, because the longer and more intense the display of emotions, lesser opportunities for an employee will have for multiple service interactions within any given time period”. For example Hochschild (1983) states that the flight attendants were more likely to shorten and limit the magnitude of expressed emotions as the number of passengers to be served increased as a routine. This was further supported by Leidner’s (1989) work which strongly encouraged interacting in a routine manner and minimizing interaction time; because time spent waiting in line violates customer’s expectation of good service.

In contrast to the above there may be no direct relationship between frequency of emotional display and variety of expressed emotions; rather, characteristics of the job and situation should have greater impact on variety. For example, counter workers at fast food restaurants and convenience store workers frequently must express desired positive emotions, but their job demands and work context are quite stable across
interactions (Rafaeli, 1989b). With secretaries they have to frequently display desired emotions, and they are required to display a much wider variety of emotions as they too have to engage in interactions with many different stakeholders in varied contexts. Wichroski’s (1994) states on the secretaries emotional labour requirements that they express irritation when vendors delay, exhibit neutrality when interacting with rude co-workers and provide encouragement to managers. In general, frequency of emotional expression and emotional dissonance should be positively associated. This relationship may occur because the more frequently employees are required to display organizationally desired emotions, the greater the probability that they will encounter situations in which their “real” feelings will conflict with expected emotions.

Attentiveness to required display rules should be positively associated with variety of expressed emotions. As the duration and intensity on interactions increase, employees need to display a wider set of emotions. Attentiveness to display rules also should be positively associated with increased emotional dissonance. The variety of expressed emotions and emotional dissonance should be negatively related. This should be true because a highly restricted range of emotions at work simply increases the chances that expected emotion will conflict with genuinely felt emotion. Middleton (1989) defined conflict between genuinely felt emotions and emotions required to be displayed in organizations as emotional dissonance. Service personnel may experience emotional dissonance when the emotional expression required by the job’s display rules clashes with their inner or “real” feelings. Adelmann, 1989 with the help of the previous examinations of other researches considered emotional dissonance a consequence of emotional labour.

Though the core components of emotional labour, surface acting and deep acting are distinct, they both require emotional effort. Thus, emotional labour has been
defined as the characteristic of the job (as defined by Morris and Feldman, 1997) and the observable expressions of employees (as defined by Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993). The goal is to gain loyal customers for the organization (the focus of Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993). Other outcomes include negative attitudes and poor health for the employee (the focus of Hochschild, 1983, and Morris and Feldman, 1997). To understand it better, an integrated definition is required by looking at the similarities of the other studies. It is seen that the previous works stem from different perspectives, they all have the same underlying theme: individuals can regulate their emotional expressions at work. Emotional labour, then, is the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organizational goals. Very specifically, each perspective discusses surface and deep acting as a way of managing emotions. The processes of surface acting (managing observable expressions) and deep acting (managing feelings) match the working definition of emotional labour as a process of emotional regulation, and they provide a useful way of operationalizing emotional labour. Thinking of emotional labour as surface and deep acting is beneficial for several reasons. First, surface and deep acting are not inherently value laden. It is seen that dissonance is a negative state of being, surface and deep acting are processes that may have positive or negative results. It is this which permits researchers to explain negative outcomes such as individual stress and health problems, and positive results such as customer service. Second, conceptualizing surface and deep acting as emotional labour has utility. If there are differences in how these two processes of emotion management relate to the outcomes, suggestions can be made for organizational training and stress management programmes. Finally, seeing emotional labour as surface and deep acting ties directly into an established theoretical model. The extant literature or models do not clearly explain why managing emotions should relate to the proposed outcomes. Grandey (2003) suggests that the concepts of surface and deep acting map onto well-established emotion regulation theory. Hochschild (1983) discussed general emotion theory, but
did not explicitly apply to the proposed relationships. Grandey (2003) reviews the theory of emotion regulation as it applies to emotional labour. It is seen that emotions theory have not been considered in the perspectives on emotional labour until Hochschild did. In the emotions literature, there is little agreement on what is meant by emotions (Arvey et al., 1998), but the term usually refers to physiological arousal and cognitive appraisal of the situation. By regulating the arousal and cognition that define emotions, individuals can control their emotional expressions to fit the display rules of the situation (Goffman, 1959). Hence, employees regulate their arousal and cognitions in order to display appropriate emotions at work. Emotion regulation theory, defined as "the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998b), provides a very useful guiding framework for emotional labour. It also states that emotion regulation research has explicitly considered the role of physiological arousal much more closely than emotional labour theorists have in the past.

Gross's (1998b) model proposes that emotion regulation can occur at two points in this process. The first point is where an individual can engage in antecedent-focused emotion regulation, where the individual modifies the situation or the perception of the situation in order to adjust emotions. In these, employees can modify how they perceive the situation in order to adjust their emotional response to the situation. With attentional deployment and cognitive change, the regulation involves the employee managing emotions by changing the attentional focus and appraisal of the situation. Attentional deployment is done by thinking about events that call up the emotions that one needs in that situation, known as "method acting" in theatre (Gross, 1998b, Stanislovsky, 1965). The other antecedent-focused method is cognitive change, where one perceives the situation so that the emotional impact is lessened (Lazarus, 1991). For example, Hochschild (1983) described flight attendants who were trained to
cognitively reappraise passengers as children so that they would not become angry with passengers' potentially infantile behaviours.

The second point, according to the process model by Gross (1998b), an individual could engage in response-focused emotion regulation. In this process, the individual manipulates how he or she shows that emotional response by "directly influencing physiological, experiential, or behavioural responding" (Gross, 1998b). Instead of adjusting to the situation or the perception of the situation, the individual manipulates the emotional expression of his or her reaction to the situation. This could be done with exercise or drugs that induce the appropriate state. It is possible that an individual may also adjust the intensity of the displayed emotion, or fake the expression entirely. Response-focused emotion regulation corresponds with the process of surface acting. An employee may paste a smile on her face though she is feeling "blah" (adjusting intensity) or may put on an empathic "mask" in order to remain polite toward the customer who is annoying (fake the display). In this emotion management technique, employees work to display more emotion than they feel, or to suppress true feelings and show acceptable expression. This emotional regulation technique is concerned with modifying expression, not the internal feelings, as in deep acting.

2.6. SERVICE TYPOLOGY

The services in the various industries have been classified in three major ways by Silvestro, Fitzgerald, Johnson and Voss (1992) based on the business processes. The classification is based on six dimensions; people versus equipment, level of customisation, extent of employee-customer contact, level of employee discretion, value added in back office versus front office and product versus process focus. In this research a typology suggested by Silvestro et al. (1992) is considered.
The three typologies suggested were

a. **Professional service:** These are organizations with relatively few transactions, highly customised, process oriented with relatively long customer contact time e.g., consultants, doctors, architects etc.

b. **Service shop:** This is something which falls between professional and mass service. Value added process occurs in the front office where considerable judgment is applied in meeting customer needs, e.g., rental services and hotels.

c. **Mass service:** These are organizations where there are many transactions and with limited contact time and little customisation. The offering is mainly product-oriented with most of the value being added at the back office and little judgement applied by the front office staff e.g., bus service, postals and fast foods.

In the service shop the influence of EI is moderate but the role of EL is increasingly important. In mass service, EI does not significantly contribute to high work effectiveness; instead EL plays its effective role in promising work effectiveness. The role of EI as well as EL in service shop is believed to be moderate.

The focus in this research is on mass service with reference to a public sector organization like the postal department. The reason why the postal department is a specific focus is because this particular government organization is in the process of transformation as it is growing very fast with over 1, 55, 015 branches as on March 2009 (annual report, India post). One of the prerequisites for transformation of India Post is upgradation of skills of the workforce and capacity building. Training of the human resources has been given its due importance and recognition in the XI Plan. A lot of training has been provided to its front office work force specifically on customer service over the last three years.
This organization has initiated an exercise called Project Arrow in 2008 with the objective of overall transformation towards better and friendly service. This organization has redone its outlets to give them a fresh look and has also started providing spread of services for the mass. The services provided in all its outlets are sale of stamps and stationery, booking of registered articles, booking of insured articles, booking of value payable articles, remittance of money through money orders and postal orders, booking of parcels, savings bank operation. Because of all these services the counter operations have increased and hence greater inflow of customers. All these services are provided from a single window and the focus is on error free services.

The study tries to focus on the impact of emotional intelligence and emotional labour on the customer i.e., work effectiveness. The number of customers walking into these outlets for service are huge with high expectation. The time the front office personnel spends or interacts with the customer is very short. However, impacting the customer is very important as the service offered by the postal department has many competitors like the couriers and banks.

2.7 MEDIATIONAL ANALYSIS: EMOTIONAL LABOUR AS A MEDIATOR

The extant literature as discussed above shows that there is a strong relationship between emotional intelligence, emotional labour and performance. In this study as stated earlier only the strategic emotional intelligence branch is considered as the independent variable, performance as the dependant variable and emotional labour as a mediator.

To test the mediational effects the four criteria procedure described by Kenny, Kashy, and Bolger (1998) was used. The four criteria will have to be met to determine that mediation occurs. Firstly the predictor is related to the outcome, secondly there has
to be a relation between the predictor and the mediator, thirdly the mediator predicts the outcome, controlling for the predictor and fourthly in the same regression, the predictor does not predict the outcome.

Emotional intelligence and emotion regulation are considered to be important antecedents of affect at work (CZote et al., 2006; Graney, 2000; Mayer et al., 2000a). The study conducted by K Kafetsios and M. Loumakou (2007) tried to test the possible mediatory effects of emotional regulation on trait EI and affect at work. The study identified very minimal evidence for emotional regulation being a mediator between EI and Affect at work.

Another study conducted by Cynthia Rodriguez Cao and Doreen Sams (2009) attempted to check if emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between emotional labour and job stress and performance, such that the greater the degree of emotional intelligence the lesser the impact of emotional labour on the job. It was identified that emotional intelligence partially mediates the relationship between emotional labour and job stress.

2.8. FOCUS OF THE STUDY

The extant literature helps us understand that emotion in the workplace plays a very important role in customer service. In a service company the employee’s customer orientation plays a vital role in creating value. Customer orientation refers to the perception of the customers about the service rendered by an employee. The importance and significance of emotions during service processes has also been discussed. Emotions are an integral part of any service industry. According to Thurau Hennig, Groth, Paul & Groemier (2006), “Emotions that customers experience during service encounters play crucial roles and directly affect the success of service
relationships.” This in turn, has a strong influence on the perception of the service quality of a company (Brady & Cronin, 2001; Hennig-Thurau, 2004; Walsh & Beatty, 2007). Over the last one and a half decades, research into emotional labour has burgeoned and there have been studies examining the concept amongst doctors, nurses, teachers, people working in the airline industry, magistrates, call centre staff, adventure guides, abortion clinic workers, customer service employees and those working in the tourist industry. Most of these studies have been concerned with emotional labour at the customer-organisation interface. (Sandi Mann 2009).

There is no doubt that we are still labouring emotionally as much as ever in the workplace, faking our emotions or hiding a range of feelings. As of now it is impossible to imagine a workplace that does not require some form of emotional management on the part of employees. It is very important to regulate emotions at work especially for customer service employees to meet goals (Kanfer & Kantrowitz, 2002). There is no workplace where emotional labour is not needed. It is required of any customer service personnel to be friendly and serve with a smile in a service organization. Being friendly and smiling by a customer service personnel is positively associated with important customer outcomes, such as intention to seek the service again, recommend, and the way they perceive the overall service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985; Pugh, 2001; Tsai, 2001). Customer service personnel, based on the nature of the job are supposed to exhibit emotion. A person working in a customer service department would repeatedly smile at a customer to have a positive outcome; on the other hand a collection agent would exhibit anger during interactions with defaulters in order to produce a positive outcome and so on. It is safe to assume that this varies depending on the nature of the job. It is evident from the above stated example that a person would exhibit a behaviour that would be suitable for that particular job to get an anticipated outcome and is known as emotional labour.
Hence, the service personnel performing this role in an organization have been identified as crucial to the emotional connection and development of a long-term relationship with the customer (Kandampully 1998). Very successful organizations have a good emotional connection with customers. When the customers walk into the organization they have a good experience. Such things make the customers feel good and develop trust. When there is authenticity and innovativeness in the service provided, the customers are touched emotionally by the caring service experiences. Customer emotions are also key drivers which create a good or a bad rapport with employees. This could finally lead to customer satisfaction and also loyalty intentions. Hence service organizations may benefit from focusing their attention on increasing positive customer emotions. The literature on customer delight highlights the emotional component of customer service evaluations (Rust and Oliver 2000).

Service encounters include all the physical facilities and tangible elements also with which the customer interacts directly. Labour intensive service industry involves direct customer interaction to a greater extent. Services like postal, banking, insurance, banking, hairstyling, beauty parlour, automobile repair, etc. are delivered periodically. The customers generally feel these services to be very important. Evaluation of these credential services is quite complex. Trust and confidence towards the service provider is all the more important in these cases. Berry & Lampo (2004) have said, “Services that are highly interactive lend themselves particularly well to an emotion based positioning”. Generally, the way a customer perceives the quality of service, as good, bad or average is based on the emotions expressed during the interaction with the customer service personnel.

With the current level of competition it is not enough for customers to be loyal but then they need to be advocates of that particular service to others as this would
develop trust and help business grow. For example, when discussing investing hard earned saving with the help of a banker, one has to trust the employee to a very high extent. This is only possible when there is an emotional bond. In services like banks and postal’s in India the frontline service personnel or the customer service manager play a very important role as it is because of this person only we utilize the service most often.

With studies confirming that emotional intelligence has the potential to be a strong predictor of performance, linking emotional intelligence and performance can help organizations with a valid alternative for selecting and assessing employees. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) argue that emotions are an integral and inseparable part of organizational life and greater importance should be given to the employee’s emotional experience. Studies on emotional labour have highlighted small, relatively costless changes in organizational context or managerial behaviour that can impact employee’s emotional reactions and consequently their performance (Hochschild, 1983; Huy 1999). Hence, it would be possible to help improve employee performance by understanding how emotions influence thoughts and behaviours.

Enhanced EI skills enable employees to regulate their emotions and motivate themselves more efficiently, it is also contended that EI will have both direct and indirect effects on employee’s performance. Emotional intelligence is a learned ability to self-monitor one's own emotions and the emotions of others. Emotional intelligence equips an individual to effectively manage his or her emotionally based behaviour. In previous researches, scholars have examined emotional intelligence as a strategy for improving managers' emotional competencies. Intuitively, the ability to self-monitor one's emotions assists how individuals display emotions. In doing so, emotional intelligence indirectly influences job stress through emotional labour. In a study by
Cynthia Rodriguez Cano and Doreen Sams (2009) “the importance of an internal marketing orientation in social services” it was proposed that the ability to understand and manage one's emotions and others (i.e., emotional intelligence) in a social service encounter mediates the relationship between emotional labour and job stress.

In a study by Othman, Abdullah and Ahmed (2008) it is stated that in mass service, offering standardised and routine services do significantly require employee’s discretion and judgement as well as interaction with others. Hence, it was proposed in the study that EI does not significantly contribute to high work effectiveness; instead EL plays effective role in promising work effectiveness. Therefore EI role is least significant in helping employees to perform well as suggested by Zapf (2002) that doing “object-related work” does not require effective emotion management. Hence, it was intended to study if emotional labour mediates emotional intelligence to performance in mass service as confirming to the SOP is the norms.

In the present project the researcher has attempted to study the same phenomenon in a public sector in India. This particular public sector undertaking in India, is of late working hard to position itself in the customers’ minds and has been giving its outlets a new look and has also changed its logo. This was specifically pursued to understand to what extent the strategies of emotional labour helps in these service encounters. The culture prevailing in the public enterprises is very different from a private enterprise among the service personnel. As Kim & Cha (2002) identified, private enterprises put in more serious and strategic efforts to satisfy and retain their end customers. This study was carried out to identify if the service personnel in the public sector have felt the need to use emotional labour strategies, and if they are sensitive to the requirements of the customers to be effective in business. In India, the services provided in public sector in yesteryears were not considered to be
good by the customers. It was not required of the service personnel to be pleasing to the customer even though it was a stated policy. If a customer was not happy or satisfied, it was not the problem of the individual providing service. The reason for this sort of behaviour was that the individual could never be questioned by the organization as to why he never intended to satisfy the customer. This normally was also never a threat to his job unlike the private sector. In the private sector monitoring of the performance of the service personnel is also intense.

As stated earlier the three major service typology identified by Silvestro, Fitzgerald, Johnson and Voss (1992) are professional service, service shop and mass service. The public enterprise chosen for this research falls under the mass service category. It is an organization where there are many transactions in a limited contact time and with very little customisation. The offering is mainly product-oriented with most of the value being added at the back office and little judgement applied by the front office staff (e.g: bus service, postal, retail banking and fast foods). Having considered an organization in mass service typology this research tries to find out the influence of emotional labour strategy i.e. deep and surface acting on performance in a public sector enterprise.

2.9 RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR THIS STUDY

1. What is the level of strategic emotional intelligence in mass service typology with respect to a public sector enterprise?
2. What is the most used labouring technique in mass service?
3. Which role in the job performance construct is performed more?
4. Is there any relationship between total work experience and strategic emotional intelligence?
5. Is there a difference in the exhibition of emotional labour with the increase in total work experience?

6. Does the level of SEI increase with age?

7. Do emotional labouring capabilities increase with age?

8. Is there any relationship between SEI and EL and its constructs individually?

9. Is there any relationship between EL and job performance and its constructs individually?

10. Is there any relationship between SEI and job performance and its constructs individually?

11. Do ER-RR, SA, DA or combined ELS influence or mediate job performance in a mass service?